The True Story of the United States of America

By Elbridge S. Brooks

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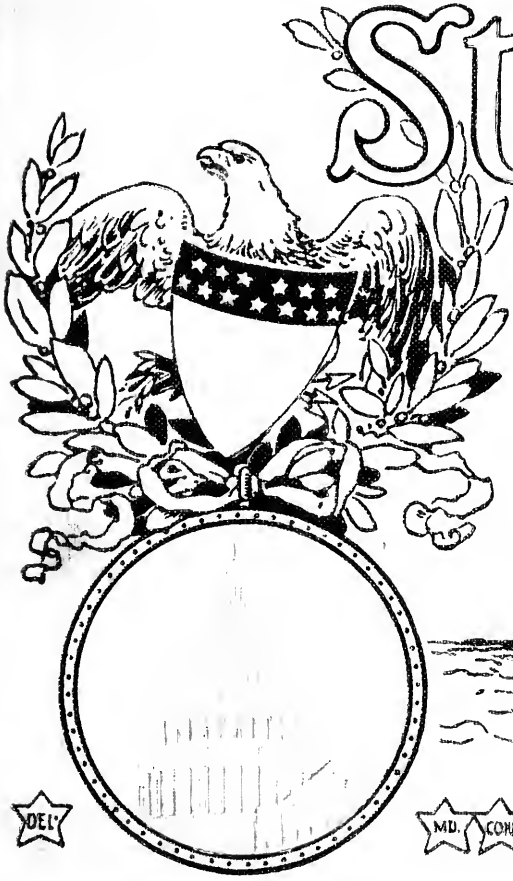

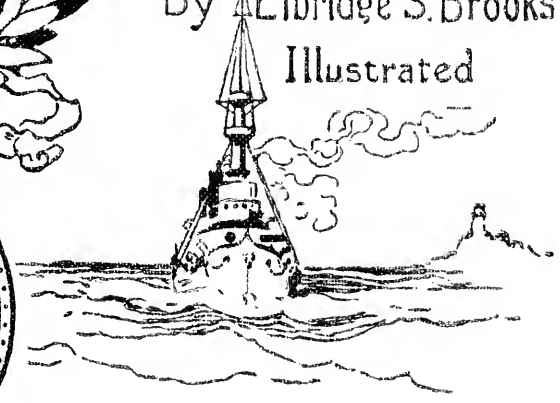

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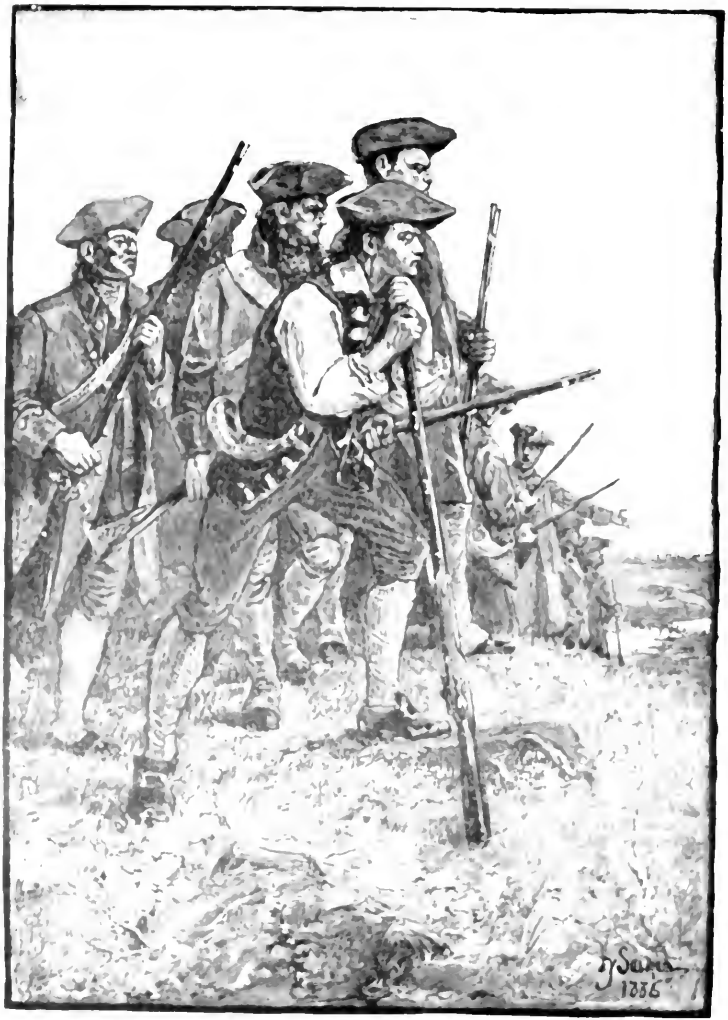
1886

THE TRUE STORY OF

THE UNITED STATES

OF AMERICA

TOLD FOR YOUNG PEOPLE

BY

ELBRIDGE S. BROOKS

AUTHOR OF "THE STORY OF OUR WAR WITH SPAIN," "THE AMERICAN SOLDIER," "THE AMERICAN SAILOR," "THE TRUE STORY OF COLUMBUS," "WASHINGTON," "LINCOLN," "GRANT," "FRANKLIN," "LAFAYETTE," AND MANY OTHERS

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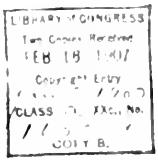

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PREFACE.

THE story of the United States of America has already been told and re-told for young Americans by competent writers, and yet there is room for another re-telling. To avoid as far as possible the dreary array of dates and the dull succession of events that may comprise the history but do not tell the story — to awaken an interest in motives as well as persons, in principles rather than in battles, in the patriotism and manliness that make a people rather than in the simply personal qualities that make the leader or the individual, is the aim of the writer of this latest "Story." The future of the Republic depends on the upbringing of the boys and girls of to-day. Any new light on the doings of the boys and girls of America's past when they grew to manhood and womanhood should be of service to the boys and girls of America's to-day and to-morrow. The hope that this volume may help as such a light has inspired its author to write as concisely and as simply as he is able the story of the great Republic's origin, development, and growth, from the far-off days of Columbus the discoverer to the nobler times of Washington the defender and Lincoln the savior of America's liberties.

E. S. B.

BOSTON, *August*, 1891.

It has seemed advisable, in view of the chain of events that have made the close of the nineteenth century notable years in the history of the Republic, to bring this "True Story of the United States" as nearly as possible to date, and thus include the stirring episode of the war with Spain. This new material is here thankfully offered to those young Americans who have, by their approval and appreciation, made this book so gratifying a success. May they live to be old Americans, proud of their native land, worthy of it and loyal to it, as it takes position far in the van, among the great nations of the twentieth century.

BOSTON, *October*, 1898.

The first five years of the twentieth century brought our country into an international prominence that marked a complete departure from the previous policy of the United States. This book needed again an extension to enable it to keep pace with the unfolding pages of new history. But the facile pen that had prepared and already once enlarged this book, one item among his many contributions to the information and entertainment of the young, was forever stilled. Mr. Elbridge S. Brooks, ripe scholar, talented man of letters, beloved of associates, and inspirer of a taste for good reading, and love of country as well, on the part of countless boys and girls, had completed his earthly work. To his daughter, Miss Geraldine Brooks, was therefore given the task of supplying an additional chapter which carries the main facts of our country's story well onward into the twentieth century, the vast possibilities of which no one can foretell. Miss Brooks has proved her inheritance of the gift that so endeared her father to the reading world.

THE PUBLISHERS.

Boston, *January*, 1907.

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THE TRUE STORY OF THE UNITED STATES OF AMERICA

CHAPTER I.

THE NEW WORLD THAT WAS OLD.

MANY hundreds of years ago there lived in ancient Greece a certain wise man whose name was Pythagoras. As a boy he had been brought up beside the blue Ægean Sea. He learned to observe carefully. He became a traveler and a teacher and from the closest study of all the things around him — the earth and sky, the sun and stars, the rise and fall of tides, the changes of the seasons and all the every-day happenings of this wonderful world of ours — he announced as his belief a theory that men called ridiculous but which, to-day, every boy and girl beginning the study of geography accepts without question. "The earth," said Pythagoras to his pupils, "is spherical and inhabited all over."

That was fully twenty-five hundred years ago and yet, after nearly two thousand years had passed, a certain Italian sailor whose name was Christopher Columbus and who believed as did the old Grecian scholar, made the same statement before a council of the most learned men of Spain and was laughed to scorn. "This Italian is crazy," they said. "Why, if the earth is round the people

on the other side would be walking about with their heels above their heads; all the trees would grow upside down and the ships must sail up hill. It is absurd. All the world knows that the earth is flat."

CHRISTOPHER COLUMBUS.

But this Italian sailor was persistent; better still, he was patient. His life had been full of adventure. From his boyhood he had been a sailor and a soldier, a fighter and a traveler in many lands and upon many seas. He loved the study of geography; he was an expert map-drawer; he had noticed much and thought more. Believing in the theory of Pythagoras, familiar to Italian scholars, that this earth was a globe, he also believed that by sailing westward he could at last reach India — or Cathay, as all the East was called.

For in those days, four hundred years ago, Eastern Asia was a new land to Western Europe. It was supposed to be the home of wealth and luxury. From it came the gold and spices and all the rare things that Europe most desired but which were only to be procured by long and dangerous journeys overland. To the man who would find a sea-way to India great honors and greater riches were sure to come. So all adventurous minds were bent upon discovering a new way to the East.

A DREAM OF CATHAY.

Christopher Columbus solved the problem. The surest and safest way to the East, he said, is to sail west. This really sounded so ridiculous that, as we have seen, men called him crazy and for a long time would have nothing to do with him or his schemes. But

THE LAURENTIAN ROCKS OF THE ADIRONDACK REGION.

he persisted; he gained friends; he talked so confidently of success, so eloquently of spreading the knowledge of the Christian religion among the heathen folk of Asia, so attractively of getting, from these same heathen folk, their trade, their gold and their spice, that at last the king and queen of Spain were won over to his side,

and on the third of August, 1492, with three ships and one hundred and twenty men, Christopher Columbus set sail from the port of Palos in southwestern Spain and steered straight out into what people called the dreadful Sea of Darkness in search of a new way to India across the western waters. But though Columbus was right in his theories and though, by traveling westward he could at last reach India and the East something that he knew nothing of lay in his path to stop his sailing westward. What was it?

Upon the western half of the earth's surface, stretching its ten thousand miles of length almost from pole to pole, lay a mighty continent — twin countries, each three thousand miles wide and joined by a narrow strip of land. Known now to us as North and South America this western continent contains three tenths of all the dry land on the surface of the globe. It is nearly fifteen million square miles in extent, is four times as large as Europe, five times the size of Australia, one third larger than Africa and not quite as vast as Asia. And this was what stopped the way as Columbus sailed westward to the East.

But though it was a new and all unknown land to the great navigator it is the oldest land in the world. The region from the Adirondack forests northward to and beyond the St. Lawrence River, and known as the Laurentian rocks, is said by those students of the rocks, the geologists, to have been the very first land that showed itself above the receding waters that once covered the whole globe. And all along the hills and valleys of North America to the south as far as the Alleghanies and the Ohio the great ice-sheet that once overspread the earth and that was driven by the advancing heat nearer and nearer to the North pole, uncovered a land so early in the history of this western world that it was old when Europe and Asia were new.

This old, old land, however, is commonly called the New World. That is because it was new to the Europeans four hundred years ago. But long before their day there had been people living

within what is now the United States. Away back in what is known to geologists as the "pleistocene period"—that is the "most new" or "deposit" age—when the ice was slipping northward and dirt was being deposited on the bare rocks; when the verdure and vegetation that make hillside and valley so beautiful to-day were just beginning to tinge the earth with green; when the great hairy elephant bathed in the Hudson and the woolly

"WHEN MONSTROUS-TOED BIRDS WADED IN THE CHARLES."

rhinoceros wallowed in the prairie lakes; when the dagger-toothed tiger prowled through the forests of Pennsylvania and the giant sloth browsed on the tree tops from Maine to Georgia; when the curved-tusked mastodon ranged through the Carolinas and monstrous-toed birds waded in the Charles—there appeared, also, by lake-side, river and seashore a naked, low-browed, uncouth race of savages, chipping the flint stones of the Trenton gravel banks into knives and spear heads and disputing with the great birds and beasts whose trails and tracks they crossed for the very caves and holes in which they lived. These were the first Americans.

The more people mix with each other, you know, the more friendly they become. In savage lands, to-day, tribes that are furious fighters against hostile tribes are linked together by some bond of family ties and held by some sort of internal government. So it was with the early Americans. As soon as they had risen above the first brutal desire for eating and sleeping, they learned the difference between fighting for food and fighting for power; they saw that the skins of the animals they killed could be wrapped about them for shelter and that a sharpened stone was a better weapon than one that was simply flung at their enemy or their game. From fighting with the beasts and with each other they began to band together for protection; then, those who lived in the more favored portions of the land grew a little more mindful of one another's wants; they made of themselves little communities in which fishing and hunting were the chief pursuits, but where those who had the time and inclination began to fashion things of stone or clay to meet their needs. Bowls and mortars, knives and arrow-heads were followed in time by bracelets and bands, vases and pipe-bowls. Still they progressed. The communities became tribes; some of them began to build houses, to make cloth, to do something more than simply to eat and fight and sleep.

AN EARLY AMERICAN.

To-day all over the middle portion of the United States, from New York to Missouri, there are found great heaps of earth which wise men who have studied them say are the remains of the towns and villages, the forts and temples, the homes and trading-places of the most civilized portion of the American people of two or three thousand years ago, and known for want of a better name under the term "mound-builders." In the far Western plains and river courses, in Arizona and New Mexico and along the banks of the

THE RED AMERICANS.

"*The men did the hunting, fishing and fighting*"

mighty Colorado there exist remains of great houses covering large sections or perched away up in the crevices of mighty cliffs. These were occupied in the early days by races now called, for convenience, the *pueblo* or house-builders and the cliff-dwellers.

All these home-building people were, however, of the same race as the fierce and homeless savages who still hunted and slaughtered in the forests of the East or on the prairies of the West. All were Americans coming from the same "parent stock." Some of them, being brighter, more ambitious or more helpful than others, simply made the most of their opportunities and grew, even, into a rude kind of civilization.

But while these advanced, the others stood still. Here in the old American home-land was fought the fight that all the world has known — the conflict between ignorance and intelligence. The good and the bad, the workers and the drones, the wise ones and the wild ones here struggled for the mastery, a certain attempt at civilization which some had made went down in blood and conquest and so, gradually, out of the strife came those red-men of America that our ancestors, the discoverers and colonists from across the sea, found and fought with four centuries ago.

Hunters require vast tracts of land to support them in anything approaching comfort; wars and tribal hostilities prevent rapid growth and there were, probably, never more than five or six hundred thousand of the red-men of North America living within the territory now occupied by the United States. They were of all classes, ranging from the lowest depths of savageness to the higher forms of barbarism; some were wild and some were wise; some were brutes and some were statesmen; some were as low in the social scale as the tramps and roughs of to-day; some as high (from the red-man's standpoint) as are your own fathers and mothers seen from your standpoint to-day.

The half-million red-men who owned and occupied our United States four hundred years ago, though scattered over a vast area,

speaking different languages and varying, according to location, in customs, costume, manners, laws and life, were still brothers, springing from the same original family and having, in whatever section of the land they lived, certain things alike; they all had the same straight, black hair; they all used in their talk the same sort of many-syllabled words — "bunch words" as they are called; and they were all what we know as communists — that is, they held their land, their homes and their property in common.

A red American's village was like one large family. All its life, all its interests and all its desires being shared jointly by all its inmates. Just as if to-day, the people of Natick, or Catskill, or Zanesville or Pasadena should agree to live together in one big house with little compartments for each family, eating together from the same soup-kettle and dividing all they raised and all they found equally between all the inmates of the one big house. The men did the hunting and fishing and fighting; the women attended to the home-work and the field labor. The boys and girls learned early to do their share and in the home the woman of the house was supreme. Even the greatest war-chief when once within his house dared not disobey the women of his house.

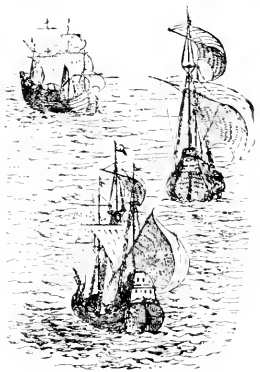
The red-men had but a dim idea of God and heaven. They were superstitious and full of fancies and imaginings. They worhiped the winds, the thunder and the sun, and were terribly afraid of whatever they could not understand. They had good spirits and bad — those that helped them in seed time and harvest, in woodcraft and the chase, and those, also, that baffled and annoyed them when arrows failed to strike, traps to catch or crops to grow.

In other words, the red-men of North America were but as little children who have not yet learned and cannot, therefore, understand the reasons and the causes of the daily happenings that make up life.

CHAPTER II.

COLUMBUS THE ADMIRAL.

ON a beautiful October morning in the year 1492, as one of the red Americans belonging to the island tribes that then lived on what we know as the Bahama group, southeast of the Florida coast, parted the heavy foliage that ran almost down to the sea on his island home of Guanahani, he saw a sight that very nearly took his breath away. Just what it was he could not at first make out, but he thought either that three terrible sea-monsters had come up from the water to destroy his land and people or that three great canoes with wings had dropped from the sky bringing, perhaps, to the folks of Guanahani some marvelous message from the spirits of the air of whom they stood in so much awe.



THE "CANOES WITH WINGS."

Gazing upon the startling vision until he had recovered from his first surprise he wheeled about and dashed into his village to arouse his friends and neighbors. His loud calls quickly summoned them and out from the forest and through the hastily parted foliage they rushed to the water's edge. But as they

gained the low and level beach they too stood mute with terror and surprise. For, from each of the monster canoes, other canoes put off. In them were strange beings clothed in glittering metal or gaily colored robes. Their faces were pale in color; their hair was curly and sunny in hue. And in the foremost canoe grasping in one hand a long pole from which streamed a gorgeous banner and with the other outstretched as if in greeting stood a figure upon whom the Americans looked with wonder, reverence and awe. It was a tall and commanding figure, noble in aspect and brilliant in costume and as the islanders marked the marvelous face and form of this scarlet-clad leader they bent in reverence and cried aloud "*Turey; turey;* they are *turey!*" (Heaven-sent.) On came the canoes filled with a glittering company and gay with fluttering flags. But as the first boat grounded on the beach and the tall chief in scarlet, his gray head yet uncovered, the flaming banner still clasped in his hand, leaped into the water followed by his men the terrified natives thought the spirits of the air were come to take vengeance upon them and, turning, they fled to the security of thicket and tree-trunk. But led back by curiosity they looked again upon these strange new-comers, and behold! they were all kneeling, bare-headed, upon the sand, kissing the earth and lifting their eyes toward the skies.

THE LANDING OF COLUMBUS.

Then the scarlet-mantled leader rising from the ground, planted the great standard in the sand and drawing a long and shining sword he spoke loud and solemn words in a language the wondering islanders could not understand, while those marvelous figures in glittering metal and gleaming cloth knelt about him as if in

THE YOUNG COLUMBUS.

"It was the realization of a life-long dream, first dimly conceived by him in his boyhood days at Genoa."

worship. They kissed their chieftain's hands, they embraced his feet and raised such loud and joyous shouts that the simple islanders puzzled yet over-awed supposed all they saw to be signs of the devoutest adoration. "*Turey; turey!*" they cried again. "He is heaven-sent." And then they, too, prostrated themselves in adoration.

Who were these pale-faced visitors who had come in such a startling way across the eastern sea? Not for years could the red Americans into whose lands they came understand who they were or why they had visited them, although they learned, all too soon, that there was little about the new comers that was godlike or heavenly. The pale-faced strangers deceived and ill-treated the simple natives from the first and for four hundred years the red-men of America have known little but bad faith and ill-treatment at the hands of the white.

But we who have heard the story again and again know who were those white visitors to Guanahani and from whence they came. For the leader of that brilliant throng that knelt in thankfulness upon the Bahama sand — this chieftain, whose followers clustered about him and raised applauding shouts while he took possession of the new-found land in the name and by the authority of Ferdinand and Isabella, king and queen of Spain — this scarlet-mantled captain whom the wondering natives worshiped as a god, was that Christopher Columbus, the wool-comber's son, the enthusiast whom men had laughed at as a madman and a "crank," the patient, persistent Italian adventurer who was now because of his great discovery owner of one tenth part of all the riches he should find, Lord Admiral of all the waters into which he should sail and viceroy of all the lands of this New Spain upon whose sunny shores he had set foot. "I have found Cathay," he cried.

It was a glorious ending to long years of toil and struggle. It was the realization of a life-long dream, first dimly conceived by him in his boyhood days at Genoa. With firm and unwavering

faith Columbus had overcome all odds. He had been despised and ridiculed, threatened and cast aside; he had gone from court to court in Europe vainly seeking aid for his enterprise; and when, at last, this was cautiously given, he had braved the terrors of an unknown sea with three crazy little vessels and an unwilling company of a hundred and twenty men. For days and days he had sailed westward seeing nothing, finding nothing, while his men sneered and grumbled and plainly showed that, if they dared, they would gladly have flung their captain overboard and turned about for home. At last signs of land began to appear — vagrant seaweed and floating drift wood, land birds blown off the shore and warm breezes that almost smelled of field and forest. And then, one day, at midnight the admiral saw a moving light that told of life near by and finally in the early morning the cry of Land! from the watchful lookout, Rodrigo de Triana, a sailor on board the Nina, told that the end of the long waiting at last had come and that Cathay was found.

It was on the morning of Friday the twelfth of October, 1492, that Columbus landed on the island of Guanahani and solemnly named the island "San Salvador." The rich vegetation, the dark-skinned natives, the rude but glittering ornaments in their ears and on their arms alike strengthened his belief that his plans were all successful and that he had found the land of gold and spices he had sailed away to seek. He had promised to find the Indies and because by sailing westward he had come upon what he supposed to be certain rich islands off the India coast these islands were called and have ever since been known as the West Indies, while the red natives who inhabited both the islands and the vast continent beyond have ever since been called by the name the Spanish discoverers gave them — Indians.

It was all a mistake. Columbus had sailed westward to find India and had found a new world instead, a world that was to prove of greater value to mankind than ever India would or could. But

to the day of his death Columbus believed he had found the land he sought for. "I have gone to the Indies from Spain by traversing the ocean westwardly," were almost his last words. And although he made four voyages across the Atlantic, each time discovering new lands and seeing new people, he still believed that he was only touching new and hitherto unknown islands off the eastern coast of Asia.

And so for a while all the world believed. No conqueror ever received a more glorious reception on his home-coming than did Columbus, the admiral. He entered the city of Barcelona, where the king and queen waited to receive him, in a sort of triumphal procession. Flags streamed and trumpets blew; great crowds came out to meet him or lined the ways and shouted their welcome and enthusiasm as he rode along. Captive Indians, gaily colored birds, and other trophies from the new-found land were displayed in the procession and in a richly decorated pavilion, surrounded by their glittering court, King Ferdinand and Isabella the queen received the admiral, bidding him sit beside them and tell his wonderful story. Honors and privileges were conferred upon him. He was called Don, he rode at the king's bridle and was served and saluted as a grandee of Spain.

Columbus, as has been said, made four voyages to America. But after the second voyage men began to understand that he had failed to find India. The riches and trade that he promised did not come to Spain and many an adventurer who had risked all for the greed of gold and the return he hoped to make became a beggar through failure and hated the great admiral through whom he expected to win mighty riches. Enemies were raised up against him; he was sent back from his third voyage a prisoner in disgrace and chains, and from his fourth voyage he came home to die.

But neither failure nor disgrace could take away the glory from what he had accomplished. Gradually men learned to understand

the greatness of his achievement, the virtue of his marvelous perseverance, the strength and nobility of his character. After his death the people of Spain discovered that he had opened for them the way to riches and honor; by the wealth of "the Indies" that Columbus brought to their feet their struggling land was made one of the most powerful nations of the earth; and though some people have said that Columbus did not discover America, but that French fishermen or Norwegian pirates were the real discoverers, we all know that, until Columbus sailed across the sea, America was unknown to Europe and that, for all practical purposes, his faith and his alone gave to the restless people of Europe a new world. America was better than Cathay, for it has proved the home of freedom, hope and progress.

CHAPTER III.

THE NAMING OF AMERICA.

COLUMBUS, as you have heard, did not know that he had discovered a new world. He thought he had merely touched some of the great islands off the eastern coast of Asia. Even when, in the month of August, 1498, he first saw the mainland of America, at the mouth of the river Orinoco, he did not imagine that he had found a new continent, but believed that he had discovered that fabled river of the East into which, so men said, flowed the four great rivers of the world — the Ganges, the Tigris, the Euphrates and the Nile.

But his success set other men to thinking, and after his wonderful voyage in 1492 many expeditions were sent westward for purposes of discovery and exploration. After he had found "Cathay" every man, he declared, wanted to become a discoverer. There is an old saying you may have heard that tells us "nothing succeeds like success." And the success of Columbus sent many adventurers sailing westward. They, too, wished to share in the great riches that were to be found in "the lands where the spices grow," and they believed they could do this quite as well as the great admiral. Once at a dinner given to Columbus a certain envious Spaniard declared that he was tired of hearing the admiral praised so highly for what any one else could have done. "Why," said he, "if the admiral had not discovered the Indies, do you think there are not other men in Spain who might have done this?" Columbus made no reply to the jealous Don, but took an egg from its dish. "Can any of you stand this egg on end?" he asked. One after another of the company tried it and failed, whereupon the admiral struck it smartly on the table and stood it upright on its broken part. "Any of you can do it now," he said, "and any of you can find the Indies, now that I have shown you the way."

So every great king in Europe desired to possess new principalities beyond the sea. Spain, Portugal, France, England alike sent out voyages of discovery westward — "trying to set the egg on end."

Of all these discoverers two other Italians, following where Columbus had led, are worthy of special note — John Cabot, sent out by King Henry the Seventh of England in 1497, and Amerigo or Alberigo Vespucci, who is said to have sailed westward with a Spanish expedition in the same year. Both of

these men, it is asserted, saw the mainland of America before Columbus did, and England founded her claims to possession in North America and fought many bloody wars to maintain them because John Cabot in 1497 "first made the American continent" and set up the flag of England on a Canadian headland. In that same year of 1497 Cabot sailed along the North American coast from the St. Lawrence to the Hudson; and Vespucci, although this is doubted by many, sailed in the same year along the southern coast from Florida to North Carolina. In 1499 Vespucci really did touch the South American coast, and in 1503 he built the first fort on the mainland near the present city of Rio de Janeiro.

AMERIGO VESPUCCI.

Both these Italian navigators thought at first, as did Columbus, that they had found the direct way to the Indies, and each one earnestly declared himself to have been the first to discover the mainland. At any rate Vespucci could talk and write the best and he had many friends among the scholars of his day. When, therefore, it really dawned upon men that the land across the seas to which the genius of Columbus had led them was not India or "Cathay" but a new continent, then it was that the man who had the most to say about it obtained the greatest glory — that of giving it a name.

Wise men who have studied the matter deeply are greatly puzzled just how to decide whether the continent of America took its name from Amerigo Vespucci or whether Vespucci took his name from America. Those who hold to the first quote from a very old

book that says "a fourth part of the world, since Amerigo found it, we may call Amerige or America;" those who incline to the other opinion claim that the name America came from an old Indian word Maraca-pan or Amarca, a South American country and tribe; Vespucci, they say, used this native word to designate the new land, and upon its adoption by map-makers deliberately changed his former name of Alberigo or Albericus Vespucci to Amerigo or Americus.

But whichever of these two opinions is correct, the Italian astronomer and ship chandler Vespucci received the honor and glory that Columbus should have received or that Cabot might justly have claimed, and the great continent upon which we live has for nearly four hundred years borne the name that he or his admirers gave to it — America.

CHAPTER IV.

SPAIN AND HER RIVALS.

AFTER the year 1500 ships and explorers followed each other westward in rapid succession. Spain, as she had started the enterprise, still held the lead and secured most of the glory and the reward. France sought a footing on the northern shores, England awoke slowly to the value of the Western world, but for nearly fifty years Spain stood alone in the field of American discovery and conquest.

And Spain's hand was heavy. The nation was greedy for gold; America was thought to be a land of gold and every exertion was

made to obtain great stores of the precious metal. For this the ships sailed westward while the "gentlemen-adventurers" thronged their decks; for this they coasted up and down the land, killing the trusting natives without pity, or turning them into slaves to help on their greedy search. The first question on landing was: Which way does the treasure lie? and the new comers could scarcely wait but would rush where even the slenderest promise pointed with the cry, "Gold, gold!" upon their lips.

But this restless hunt for gold gave the knowledge of new lands to the world. In 1500, Captain Cabral the Portuguese navigator discovered the shores of Brazil; that same year, thousands of miles to the north, the French sailor Gaspar Cortereal landed upon Labrador; in 1508 Vincent Pinzon entered the Rio de La Plata and the Spanish gold-hunters finding the Indians not hardy enough for work in the mines sent over African negroes to take their places, and thus introduced into America the curse of negro slavery; in 1511 Diego Velasquez, with three hundred men, conquered the island of Cuba; in 1512 John Ponce de Leon, seeking for a magic fountain that, it was said, would make him young again, discovered Florida but not the magic spring; in 1513 Vasco Nunez de Balboa, still looking for the coveted gold, crossed the Isthmus of Darien and discovered the Pacific Ocean; in 1519 Hernando Cortés with five hundred and fifty men sailed to the conquest of Mexico and completed his bloody work in less than two years; in 1519 Francisco de Garay explored the Gulf of Mexico; in 1520 Lucas de Ayllon explored the Carolina coast; in 1522 Fernando Magellan sailed around the world; in 1524 the Italian captain Verrazano

DE SOTO.

CORONADO'S MARCH.

"He set out from Mexico to find a wonderful land of gold known as the 'Seven Cities of Cibola.'"

sailed with a French expedition into Narragansett Bay and New York harbor; in 1531 the cruel Pizarro with scarce a thousand men overthrew the Inca civilization of Peru and conquered all that coast for Spain; in 1535 Jacques Cartier, a French navigator, explored the Gulf of St. Lawrence and set up the arms of France on the banks of the great river of that name; in 1535 the Spanish captain Mendoza with two thousand men conquered all the great silver country about the Rio de la Plata; in 1537 Cortés, sending an expedition northward along the Pacific coast, discovered the region called California; in 1539 Fernando De Soto with a gallant army, landed in Florida for the conquest of all that country, and marched westward to his death; in 1541 Chile was conquered by Spanish troops and Orellana the adventurer made the descent of the Amazon from its source to its mouth; in 1543 De Soto's broken expedition came sadly back, a sorry remnant only, leaving its leader dead beneath the waters of the great river he had discovered — the mighty Mississippi.

IN SIGHT OF MEXICO.

It is a long and adventurous record, in which Spain bears almost all the glory, is it not? But so for fifty years did Spanish ships and Spanish soldiers "the Conquistadores" or conquerors, as they were called, sail and march hither and thither, exploring and conquering, making a few settlements at important points from which they might send home the riches they had collected, getting themselves hated by the red men whom they tortured and enslaved, and growing each year more and more greedy for the gold they never seemed able to get enough of.

Whoever is greedy is certain to be disliked, for he who tries to

appropriate everything generally finds that other people object to such an appropriation. Four hundred years ago the Pope of Rome was believed to be the head of the Christian world. To him kings and princes gave obedience and his word was law. When Portugal — by reason of her discoveries in Africa and Asia — and Spain, because of what Columbus had found across the western seas, appealed to Rome for authority to possess the lands, the Pope drew a line on the map and said: "All discoveries west of this line shall belong to Spain; all east of it shall belong to Portugal."

But there were other nations that objected to such a division. England, as we have seen, claimed the right to possess America because of Cabot's discovery in 1497, and France whose fishermen had for years sailed westward to the shallow places or "banks" off Newfoundland where codfish were to be caught, laid equal claim to the American shores. For years they did not openly dispute with Spain, for the ships and explorers of that nation kept to the south in their search for gold, while France kept to the north. Verrazano, in May, 1524, had landed near Portsmouth, N. H., and in 1537 Captain Jacques Cartier sailed up the St. Lawrence River as far as Montreal. Other French ships followed, and though Spain grumbled loudly and threatened all sorts of harsh things to France for thus sailing into "her territories," for a while nothing was done because Spain still held that the most valuable part of America was to the south where the gold mines lay.

But now England awoke to the fact that Spain's greediness must be stopped, and that some of the good things that were being found in America ought really to come to her. The king of England

quarrelled with the Pope of Rome, and denying the right of the Pope to give away the new world to Spain, King Henry the Eighth and his daughter the famous Queen Elizabeth began to send their ships and fighting-men into the very regions that Spain had held so long — the West Indies and South American waters. Captain William Hawkins, his son, Captain John Hawkins, and the brave Sir Francis Drake were the most celebrated of these early English sea-captains who dared the might of Spain. They worried the Spaniards terribly; they stormed their forts, captured their ships and seized their stores of goods and merchandise, and by their daring and their audacity so enraged the Spaniards, that for over a hundred years the waters all about the West India Islands and the lands which were known as the Spanish Main, were the scene of bloody battles and cruel revenges. These old Englishmen were brave men though they were cruel fighters, as indeed were all men in those bloody times. Captain John Hawkins kept his ships together by these excellent directions: "Serve God daily; love one another; preserve your victuals; beware of fire; and keep good company." And Sir Francis Drake, who was the first of Englishmen to discover the Pacific Ocean, and who in 1578 made a famous voyage around the world, was so feared by the Spaniards against whom he fought continually, that they called him "the English dragon."

SIR FRANCIS DRAKE.

Other noted Englishmen who made themselves famous in American discovery were Martin Frobisher who tried to find a way around America by sailing to the north; Sir Humphrey Gilbert who twice tried to make a settlement in North America and the story of whose shipwreck in the Swallow has been told in a beautiful poem by Longfellow; Captain John Davis, whom you know in geography as the brave mariner for whom Davis' Straits were named; and Sir Walter Raleigh who gave the knowledge of tobacco to the world and made the first English settlement in North America in 1587.

But, before Raleigh, settlements had already been made in what is now the region known as the United States. John Ribault and René de Laudonniere, French Protestants both, in the years 1562 and 1564 settled French colonies in Florida only to be horribly killed by the Spaniards who claimed the sole right of occupation of that beautiful summer land. In 1565 the Spaniards founded St. Augustine and in 1570 tried to make a settlement on the Potomac River, but failed. The Spaniards even penetrated into the country as far north as Central New York, but all their colonies north of Florida were failures. In 1540 a Spanish captain named Coronado, set out from Mexico to find a wonderful land of gold known as the "Seven Cities of Cibola." He led a most remarkable march across the western territory of the United States almost as far north as the present city of Omaha. But he failed to find the seven fairy cities he sought or even the gold he hoped to bring away; though, had he but known it, his march across New Mexico, Arizona and Colorado was over more gold than he ever dreamed of — but it was sunk deep down in mines beneath the earth.

SIR WALTER RALEIGH.

So, all through the sixteenth century, from 1500 to 1600, went on the fight between Spain and France and England for the possession of the western world. Except in the far south, in Mexico and the West Indies, in Brazil and Peru, few settlements were made. It

was simply a gold-hunt for a hundred years. At length Europeans began to understand that the riches of the New World were in its splendid climate and its fertile soil, and learned to know that future success was to be found only by those who made homes within its borders. Then it was that the gold-hunt ceased and the explorers were followed by the colonizers.

CHAPTER V.

HOMES IN THE NEW WORLD.

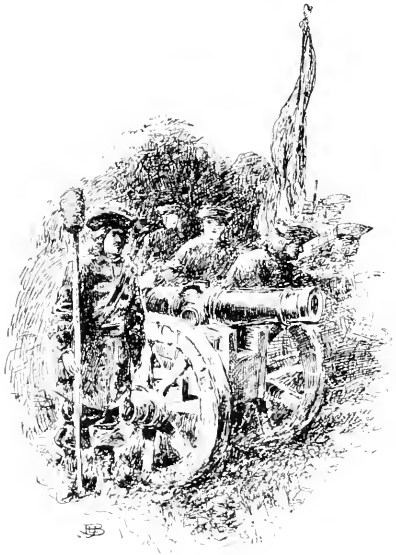
I HAVE seen boys and girls — have not you? — who, when all had equal chances, would rush to the best strawberry-patch, or the fullest blackberry-bush, or the best place for a sight of some passing procession and cry out, "Ah-ha! it's mine. I got here first!" Such a display of selfishness is certain to make their companions angry, especially if the finders refuse to share their good fortune.

Well — there was a certain wise old poet (Dryden, his name was who after studying the ways of the world declared that

"Men are but children of a larger growth."

and the settlement of America is good proof of this. For each nation as it found a footing in the new world cried out to the rest of Europe, just like selfish children: "It's mine. I got here first!"

And it does seem as though for fully a hundred and fifty years — from 1600 to 1750 — the European settlers in North America spent a good portion of their time in trying to push one another off the little spots of earth on which they stood, shoving and elbowing each other and growling out: "Get off; this is my ground!" or: "Get off, yourself; I've as much right here as you!"



"ELBOWING OFF."

The Spaniards pushed away the French and the English elbowed off the Dutch and the Dutch crowded out the Swedes until at last, with a grand shove, the English pushed off Spaniards, Dutchmen, Frenchmen and all, occupying the whole of North America from the St. Lawrence River to the Gulf of Mexico.

At first the colonies that settled in America were started for money-making purposes. Those who founded them came for purposes of trade or because they hoped to make a living in the new world more easily than they could at home. Strange stories were told of the riches that were to be found in America. "Gold," so one man said it had been told him, "is more plentiful there than copper. The pots and pans of the folks there are pure gold, and as for rubies and diamonds they go forth on holidays and pick them

up on the seashore to hang on their children's coats and stick in their children's caps."

So the lazy people who wished to get rich at once without hard work, sailed over to America only to be terribly disappointed. But with all these money-seeking adventurers went also many hard-working and many good and kind people who really desired homes in the new world or hoped to be able to help the "red salvages," as they called the Indians. Brave preachers or missionaries of the Roman Catholic Church went ahead even of the French explorers and settlers; they carried the knowledge of the Christian religion to the wild Indians of Canada, who never could seem to understand what the good missionaries sought to teach them and, too often, thinking that because the "black robes" came from hostile tribes they must be enemies, tortured and killed them. To the English colonies, also, came men and women who had a deeper purpose than simply to make a living. They came because they found it so hard to agree upon religious matters with those in authority at home, and because they hoped in a new land to be able to live together in peace and with the right to worship God as they pleased.

All this was in the early years of 1600. There had been settlements formed already within the limits of what is now the United States, but they were not permanent.

JAMES I.

In 1565 the Spaniards had founded the present city of St. Augustine in Florida, making it thus the oldest town in the United States, but this place while in Spanish possession had no association with any of the other North American settlements and can scarcely be considered as belonging to them.

In 1584 Sir Walter Raleigh had attempted to plant an English settlement on Roanoke Island on the North Carolina coast, but the houses and colonists he left there had disappeared forever when

help came over the seas to them, and to this day no one knows what ever became of "the lost colony."

In 1606, however, the attention of some of the rich men or capitalists of England was directed toward the importance of America as affording a fine chance for business investment, and in that year two wealthy corporations were formed for the purpose of colonizing the New World. These corporations were called the London Company and the Plymouth Company. To these Companies King James of England granted the right to trade and colonize in the land along the Atlantic Coast from Halifax to Cape Fear. Of this vast territory the Plymouth Company was to control the northern half and the London Company the southern.

QUEEN ELIZABETH.

No sooner were these Companies formed than they set about carrying out their plans for trade and settlement. On the first of January, 1607, an expedition consisting of three ships and over one hundred colonists sailed from England, sent out by the London Company to settle the lands where Sir Walter Raleigh had lost his colony and which he had named Virginia, in honor of the famous Queen Elizabeth, who because she never married was known as "the Virgin Queen." They landed at Jamestown in Virginia.

The most prominent man in this company of adventurers was

DISPUTING FOR POSSESSION.

"*This is my ground.*"

Captain John Smith. His life is one exciting story. A rover and a fighter from his boyhood, he had been in many lands and had had many surprising adventures. His life in Virginia was no less remarkable. When provisions failed and disaster and death threatened the colonists, Smith by his wise and energetic measures found them relief although many of them were so jealous of his superior ability, that they sought to drive him away. But, notwithstanding their envy, he worked with hand and brain to make the settlement at Jamestown a success. He made friends with the Indians; he procured from them food for the succor of his starving comrades, and, at the risk of his own life, again and again carried the struggling colony through the dark days of its beginnings. But he did brag terribly.

The Indians of Virginia were at first friendly to the settlers. But they soon learned to distrust and dislike them, and but for the watchfulness of Captain John Smith and the good-will of a little Indian girl whose name was Ma-ta-oka, sometimes called Pocahontas, the settlement at Jamestown would soon have been utterly destroyed. Pocahontas,

who was the daughter of the Indian chief Powhatan, proved herself in many ways the friend of the white people, and it is sad to think that after her friend Captain Smith had left the colony, the settlers repaid her kindness by trying to kidnap the Indian girl so as to force food and corn from her father. Powhatan the chief was very angry, and threatened to destroy the colony, but just then a certain English gentleman whose name was Rolfe, fell in love with Pocahontas and married her, and, at her request, Powhatan made a lasting peace with the white men. It is said that two presidents of the United States, William Henry Harrison and his grandson Benjamin Harrison, are descended from this Indian girl who married the Englishman.

Captain John Smith was so deeply interested in America that he wrote and talked about it a great deal. He made a map of what he called New England, and the young English prince Charles (afterwards the king who lost his head) dotted it all over with make-believe towns to which he gave the names of well-known towns in England. Captain Smith told another English captain whose name was Henry Hudson, some of his ideas, and in 1609 Captain Hudson, sailing in the service of Holland, remembered some of Captain Smith's words and hunted up and explored the beautiful river that now bears his name — Hudson River. At the mouth of this river

in 1614 the Dutch, as the people of Holland are called, made a settlement which they named New Amsterdam. The colonists were sent out by a rich corporation in Holland called the Dutch West India Company, formed like the London and Plymouth Companies for the purpose of trade. They were sent to the Hudson River country to purchase furs from the Indians. This little fur post was the beginning of the great city of New York.

PRINCE CHARLES.

Captain Smith's favorable report of the New England coast and that of other explorers who had sailed from Maine to Long Island Sound, turned the attention of settlers in that direction, but the first real settlement was made in 1620 by a body of English exiles known to us as "the Pilgrims." Driven first to Holland by religious persecution, they sailed from Delft Haven in the Mayflower under arrangements with the London or Virginia Company, as it was sometimes called, intending to settle somewhere near the Hudson River. By some mistake they did not reach Virginia but striking to the northward, landed first at Cape Cod and, afterward — on the twenty-second of December in the year 1620, stepped ashore on the gray bowlder famous as Plymouth Rock, on the Massachusetts coast, and there, in the bleak winter of 1620–21, founded a sorry little settlement that was the beginning of New England.

WILLIAM PENN THE YOUNGER.

Within the next fifty years other settlements were made along the Atlantic coast by emigrants from Europe — most of them from

England — who desired to build for themselves homes in the New World. In 1623 Captain John Mason made two settlements on the Piscataqua River in New Hampshire — one at Dover and one at Portsmouth. In 1634 certain English Roman Catholics seeking relief from persecution, settled on the Potomac River in Maryland. In 1635 people from the Plymouth Colony settled at the mouth of the Connecticut River, and in 1636 Roger Williams, a good but outspoken man who could not agree on matters of religion with his Massachusetts brethren, was driven from the colony and with some of his followers founded Providence in Rhode Island. In 1638 a company of emigrants from Sweden settled on the shores of Delaware Bay; in 1640 certain Virginia colonists who could not agree on religious matters with their neighbors, set up for themselves at Albemarle in North Carolina; in 1670 William Sayle brought a company of English settlers across the sea and founded Charleston in South Carolina; in 1664 a settlement was made at a place called Elizabeth in New Jersey; in 1682 William Penn the younger, a famous English Quaker, with one hundred of his associates settled in Pennsylvania where now stands the great city of Philadelphia; and, years after, in 1730, the English soldier General Oglethorpe with one hundred and twenty colonists, settled in Georgia on the site of the present city of Savannah.

These thirteen settlements along the Atlantic coast were the beginnings of the United States of America. As you see they were for the most part made by people who were not satisfied because things at home did not suit them; and they were, in most cases, backed by the capital of rich men who saw in the new land an opportunity to make money and, at the same time, help the poor or the persecuted folks who were anxious to escape from their home troubles.

They occupied but a narrow strip on the ragged sea-border of a vast and unexplored continent; their beginnings were full of disappointment and disaster; their future was uncertain and yet these

thirteen struggling settlements were in time to be reckoned by England as among the most important and at the same time the most troublesome of all her possessions in foreign lands.

CHAPTER VI.

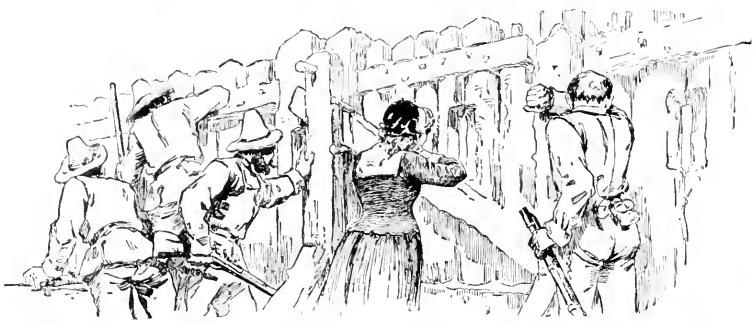
THE FIRST COLONISTS.

WHEN we remember how many kinds of people go off to settle in new countries and the reasons that draw them there, we shall not be at all surprised to learn that the settlers along the Atlantic border of North America two hundred and fifty years ago, did not have the easiest sort of life or the pleasantest of times as they tried to make homes for themselves in the midst of all that wilderness. Even though we try to do so, we can scarcely picture to ourselves the three thousand miles of coast line from Maine to Georgia as it looked in those early days. For, try as we may, we shall not be able to think of it other than as it exists to-day — cleared of its woodland, studded with noble cities and alive with a crowding and busy throng of men and women, boys and girls. Then, in all New England, the forests ran down to the sea; behind the white sands of the New Jersey and Carolina beaches, the land was dark with monstrous pines, while over all the land prowled the wolf and the bear, the buffalo and the elk, and all manner of wild wood beasts that we can now only find in menageries, if at all. Not a horse or a cow lived in all North America; those now here are descendants of the stock brought over by the European settlers.

Here and there, throughout the land, were scattered Indian villages in which lived a people that no white man dared to trust, because no white man could understand their manner of thought and life, while roving bands in the hunting and fishing season came into the settlements to exchange their peltry for the wonderful labor-saving tools the white man had brought with him, or to pry about and make husband and housewife suspicious and uncomfortable.

All about the little settlements rose the uncleared forests in whose depths and shadows lurked they knew not what dangers. The woodman's axe had made but small openings as yet, and near at hand stood wooden block-house, clumsy fort or picketed palisades as the sole protection against lurking Indians or the still more savage foeman of France or Spain.

Neither store nor shop, wareroom nor manufactury were to be



A PALISADED FORT.

found when food ran short or household stuffs were needed, and all who lacked must go without or starve until such time as the supply ship, braving storm and wreck, came sailing over-sea.

But, more than all this, the greatest danger to the struggling settlements lay in the colonists themselves. Here were people of

all sorts and conditions — the poor and the proud, the sick and the well, the good and the bad, the weak and the strong, the wise and the foolish, the worker and the drone, the dissatisfied and the indifferent, the over-particular and the careless, every class and every kind of men, women and children whom poverty, discontent, politics, persecution, restlessness, greed, love and ambition had sent across the sea to struggle in a new world for the homes or the advantages they had lost in the land of their birth. Quarreling and jealousies over rights and privileges; privation and distress from lack of sufficient food or proper home surroundings; disease, sickness and death — all these sprung up in or visited each little settlement, cutting down its numbers, stirring up discontent and strife or hindering its growth when most it needed gentle influences, sturdy workers and healthy and honest lives.

SUSPICIOUS OF INDIANS.

And yet in spite of all drawbacks the settlement slowly grew. Along that narrow strip of land between the mountains and the sea, from Maine to Georgia, were planted in the years between 1620 and 1700 the seeds from which has sprung a mighty nation of freemen. Before 1620, twelve hundred and sixty-one persons had been sent to the various "plantations" of the Virginia Company; by 1634 the Massachusetts colonists had grown to between three and four thousand in number, distributed in sixteen towns. There were frequent disputes at first as to the ownership of the land and just

what the different companies or proprietors had the ability to promise or the right to give away, but these gradually grew less, until at length the only bar to the complete English possession of the Atlantic coast from Pemaquid to Charleston, was the little Dutch settlement at the mouth of the Hudson River.

Three hundred years ago there were two questions that more than any other perplexed people. These were: where and how to live and where and how to go to church. The Old World was so full of struggle between kings and princes, lords and ladies, as to just who had the strongest arm and just who should be the ruler, that the people who were not of high rank were looked upon as fit only to fight for this side or for that. Their trade or occupation was interfered with and following this or that party might make a man a pauper in a day or cost him his life on the battle-field or his head on the scaffold. When, therefore, the settlement of a new land far away from all this strife and risk, offered opportunity for whosoever had pluck enough or ambition enough to try for fortune in fresh fields, those who loved money, those who loved ease, those who loved freedom and those who loved life, hastened to make the most of the opportunity and sailed to the Virginia Plantations, or the Dutch settlement of New Amsterdam at the mouth of the Hudson. Trade in tobacco and trade in furs speedily made both these sections centers of business, and the Virginia planters and the New Netherland "factors" built up a steadily growing trade with the home markets in England and Holland.

DUTCH WINDMILLS IN OLD NEW YORK.

The question as to where and how to go to church was equally

SETTLERS FROM HOLLAND APPROACHING NEW AMSTERDAM.

important. When Martin Luther in Germany and King Henry the Eighth in England broke away from the Roman Catholic Church, men began to think for themselves more and more, and new sects and new opinions sprung up in the churches. This led to what is called freedom of thought, but it led also to discussions, quarreling, persecution and death. People who held certain religious opinions

CAVALIER AND PURITAN.

were very firm in their new faith; the people who believed otherwise were equally firm, and so it came to pass that they could not live together in peace and charity. Upon this those who were of the weaker or persecuted party looked abroad for some place where they could live as they chose, going to the church of their choice and mingling with those who believed as they did. These too

hailed America as the place they sought, and thus was Massachusetts settled by the Pilgrims and the Puritans, Maryland by the Roman Catholics, Virginia by the Episcopalians and Pennsylvania by the Quakers.

But even in the new land all was not peace. For the colonists had not brought across the sea that brotherly kindness that is called the spirit of toleration. That was to be gained only as the outgrowth of American life and American freedom. So, from Maine to Georgia the different church sects were jealous of one another; they argued and quarreled, refused to live together in unity and showed the self-same spirit of intolerance and the same inclination toward persecution that they had fled from in England, France or Holland.

But in spite of religious differences and political jealousies, of opposition to trade and neglect by those at home who had promised them support and succor, the thirteen colonies on the Atlantic border slowly extended their clearings and enlarged their numbers.

The date of the first permanent settlements along the seaboard — not counting the Spanish at St. Augustine — were the French at Port Royal in Nova Scotia in 1605, the English at Jamestown in Virginia in 1607, the French at Quebec in Canada in 1608, the Dutch at New Amsterdam (afterward New York) in 1613 and the English at Plymouth in Massachusetts in 1620.

The French settlement of Canada does not properly fall within our plan of this story any more than does the Spanish settlement of Mexico, for neither Canada nor Mexico have yet become parts of the United States, but the enterprise and energy with which the priests and soldiers, the lords and ladies, the traders and peasants of France sought to found a vast colony among the lakes, the rivers and the forests of the North, are worthy of remembrance. Here Cartier had made discoveries; here Champlain, bravest and most untiring of Frenchmen, rightly named "the Father of New France," had founded and fought; here Marquette the missionary and La

Salle the trader lived and labored, and, becoming pioneers, pushed westward, discovering the Ohio and the Mississippi Rivers and, by right of this discovery, establishing the claim of France to all the wide western country beyond the Alleghanies. But all this vast section, as we shall see, from Canada to Louisiana, was finally secured from France by the power of England or the wisdom of the United States.

The beginnings of home-life in the New World which we have already noticed as the "first permanent settlements," soon led to other attempts at colonization. The founding of Jamestown in Virginia in 1607 was followed by that of Henrico and Bermuda in 1611 and of other "plantation" settlements in 1616. In New England the struggling Plymouth colony of 1620 was followed by the settlements at Little Harbor (or Portsmouth) in New Hampshire in 1623, at Pemaquid near the mouth of the Kennebec River in Maine in 1625, at Salem in Massachusetts in 1628, at Boston in 1630, at Providence in Rhode Island in 1636, and at Hartford and New Haven in Connecticut in 1635 and 1638. The Dutch settlements at New Amsterdam (New York) and at Renselaerswyck (Albany) in 1623 and at the Wallabout (Brooklyn) were the principal centers of Dutch life, while at Philadelphia in 1682, at Port Royal and Charleston in South Carolina in 1670 and 1680 the Europeans broke ground for homes in a new and untried land. From these as centers other towns were started and in 1700 the population of the Atlantic coast settlements extending from Pemaquid in Maine to Port Royal in South Carolina had reached upwards of two hundred thousand. During all these early years the colonists had but little in common; their life and labor were largely confined to the places in which they had come to make their homes, and a journey from

New York to Boston was almost as uncommon as is to-day a trip to Central Africa or a voyage to the Friendly Isles.

Their forms of government, too, for these first years were different. One by one, however, the colonies were taken out of the hands of the Companies and Lord Proprietors by whom they had originally been planted and were made royal provinces of England; and, in 1700, the word of the King of England was law throughout all the thirteen colonies of the English Crown.

CHAPTER VII.

HOW THEY LIVED IN COLONIAL DAYS.

THERE are few boys and girls to-day, however tenderly brought up, who do not enjoy getting away from their comfortable homes for a few days in the summer and "roughing it" in some out-of-the-way "camp" by river, lake or sea. But, after a while, this summer "roughing" grows disagreeable and the longing comes for the nice things and modern conveniences of home.

Life in the thirteen colonies in America two hundred and fifty years ago was the hardest kind of "roughing it." Conveniences there were none, and even necessities were few. Many of the new settlers could not stand the life. Some returned across the sea to the homes they had left; some, unable to endure the privations they had to undergo, sickened and died in their new homes; but those who did survive or who could stand the home-sickness, the dangers and the diseases which all alike must face and

share, toughened under hardship, grew strong and sturdy and self-reliant, and became the ancestors of that hardy race which has built up into prosperity these United States of ours.

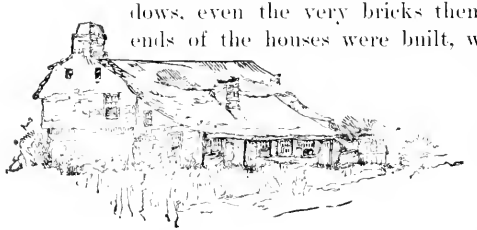
As you have learned from the previous chapter, the early colonists, alone and in a strange land, had to depend upon themselves for almost every thing they needed to support life or give them the few

LONGING FOR THE OLD HOME.

necessities and fewer comforts they must have. The ground had to be cleared of its forests, broken and ploughed and prepared for grain and grass, for vegetables and fruits. Many a time did those first comers suffer for food. The "starving time" of 1610 in Virginia, and the famine of 1623 in the Plymouth colony, were hardships that

very nearly destroyed the feeble settlements; often the people of Plymouth in those first days had nothing but clams to eat and water to drink. And yet one of their faithful ministers, Elder Brewster, could in the midst of such a terrible lack of food thank God that "they were permitted to suck of the abundance of the seas and of the treasures hid in the sand." Was not that an heroic patience?

The first houses were the roughest of shelters — holes dug in the ground and hastily roofed over; then, flimsy bark huts or rudely-made log cabins; houses of hewed logs or of planks, hand-split or hand-sawed from selected forest logs. Finally, as wealthier people came to the settlements more substantial houses of wood or stone were built. Sometimes, the "finishing touches," the doors and windows, even the very bricks themselves of which the gable ends of the houses were built, were brought across the sea from England or Holland for the adornment of these more pretentious houses. Certain of these old landmarks may now and then be found to-day, standing, still strong, though gray and weather-beaten. I recall one such in which I have spent many a happy hour, a mile or so back from the Hudson River, just across the New Jersey line — its ends built of little Dutch bricks brought across from Holland, its quaint and startling mantel of pictured tiles descriptive of Old Testament history, its floor of still solid hand-hewed planks, its massive rafters dark with smoke and age, and over the Dutch half-door the date of building set in burned brick in the front of field stone. And in the old Jackson house at Andover, in Massachusetts, the chimney was so huge that two or three mischievous fellows, fastening a rope about one of their number, lowered him down the chimney until he reached the spot where hung a "fine fat turkey set aside for the



AN OLD LANDMARK.

GOING TO SCHOOL IN 1700.

wedding dinner of Master Jackson's daughter." Then thief and booty were alike pulled up the chimney, and of the wedding turkey a stolen feast was made.

Within the house the rooms were few, but the kitchen, with its huge fireplace, supplied with seats and settles, was at once kitchen, dining and living room; it was the center of the home life; its rough but strong home-made furniture, its wooden table-dishes and clumsy "kitchen-things" would be deemed by us of to-day as suited only to the hardest kind of "roughing it." There were, of course, finer houses built as the years went by and the people prospered, but even the finest mansions had but few of what we now call conveniences — few indeed of what we hold as necessities — and even the most highly-favored children of those early days endured privations that the boys and girls of our day would grumble at as unbearable.

Porridge for breakfast, mush or hasty pudding for supper, with a dinner of vegetables and but little meat at any time were the daily meals of our ancestors. Life in all the colonies was rough and simple, and though we of to-day who expect so much would find in it much to complain of, it does not seem to have been altogether uncomfortable as the settlements grew and the fields became more productive, the crops more plentiful and the larder more bountifully supplied. Except in the cities — such as Boston, New York and Philadelphia, where English manners and English fashions gradually crept into the wealthier families — the wardrobes of parents and children were scanty and plain. They were usually of homespun stuff, for the whirring spinning-wheel was the best-used belonging of every household. Leather breeches and homespun jackets were worn by father and son, but on Sunday or at times of festivity and holiday, there was a display of lace ruffles and silver buckles and a certain amount of style and finery. The windmills ground the corn that the fertile farms produced; the post-rider galloped from town to town with news or messages; the roads were poor; the streets in the few towns were poorly paved and illy lighted; the field work

was the great thing to be done, and strict attendance at church on Sunday with two-hour sermons to occupy the time was the main privilege of young and old. Schools were rare and never long-continuing. In the South little was done toward the general education of the children, and many of the boys and girls in the early days grew to manhood and womanhood unable to write their names. But as time went on more attention, in the Northern colonies, was devoted to the children's schooling. The instruction given was slight, and "book-learning" was confined to a study of the catechism and of "the three R's" ("reading, 'ritin', and 'rithmetic"), while the ferule and the birch rod played an important part in the schoolmaster's duties.

THE WHIRRING SPINNING-WHEEL.

There were few wagons for hauling stuff or carriages for riding. Pack horses were the only expresses on land; boats and small coasting schooners — ketches and snows, as they were called — carried the heavier freights and merchandise along the coast or up and down the rivers.

STOPPING THE POST-RIDER.

Indian corn in the North and tobacco in the South were the principal things raised and cultivated. Farming tools and utensils were clumsy and unhandy as compared with those of to-day, and it was a long time before the new farm lands were cleared of stumps and rocks. Many of the New England settlers were fishermen, and as the years went

on they built many vessels for use in the ocean fisheries. Shipbuilding, in fact, soon grew to be an important industry along the Atlantic coast, and only six years after the settlement of New Amsterdam (New York), a "mighty ship" of eight hundred tons was built and christened the "Nieuw Netherlands;" but it proved so big and cost so much that it well-nigh ruined the enterprising Dutchmen who built it and not for two hundred years after was so great a vessel attempted in America.

IN THE CHIMNEY-CORNER.

Where there was so much work to be done and so few ways of making it easy there was not much time for rest or sport. People went to bed early so as to be up early in the morning; but the men and boys when they could find the time enjoyed themselves hunting and fishing, while many of them grew to be hunters by occupation. Deer and wild turkeys were plenty in the woods; wild geese and fish swarmed in lake and river; foxes and wolves, bears and panthers were sometimes far too plenty for the farmer's comfort and a constant war was kept up against them with trap and gun and fire.

Life was rougher and harder then than now and the boys and girls were not allowed to be wasteful of time or food or clothes. The beadle and the tithing-man, the town-crier and the rattle-watch made things unpleasant for mischievous young people, and there was little of that freedom of association between parents and children that is one of the pleasantest features of the home and family life of to-day. In every village, North and South alike, the stocks

and pillory, the whipping-post and ducking-stool stood in plain view as a warning to all offenders, and as a result people were hardened to the sight of punishment and boys and girls would even stand by and make sport while some poor law-breaker was held hand and foot in the pillory or some scolding woman was doused and drenched on the ducking stool.

Yes, it was a hard life, judged by our standards, when every one had to "rough it" in those early colonial days. But though we may not feel that the "good old times" we read about could really have been so very enjoyable, after all, as we understand "good times," we do know that to the struggles and trials, the privations and efforts, the labors and results of two hundred and fifty years ago are due the pluck and perseverance, the strength and glory that made America "the land of the free and the home of the brave."

CHAPTER VIII.

FOES WITHOUT AND WITHIN.

IF unploughed land and unfelled forests had been the only obstacles with which the early colonists had to contend, if wolf and bear and panther had been the only living enemies against which they had to struggle, then would the settlement of America have been as easy a task as is to-day the starting of new towns in Dakota or Washington, or the cultivation of the reclaimed lands of Arizona and Idaho. But every step of the path toward prosperity had almost to be fought for against foes without and foes within.

The dread of Indian attack was an ever-present terror, and for this no one was to blame save the white men themselves. From the very first day of discovery the red men and the white had failed to understand one another. Had Spaniard and Englishmen but met the Indians in the spirit of friendship, of justice and of helpfulness much blood and sorrow might have been avoided. But from the very first the Indians learned to distrust the Europeans. The white man's greed for gold and for land made him careless of the red man's rights and more brutal even than the wild natives of the American forests; it made him mean and base and cruel and quickly turned the wonder and reverence of the Indian to hatred and the desire for revenge.

THE CLEARING.

When the Frenchmen came a second time to Florida they found the pillar which they had set up to display the arms of France garlanded with flowers and made an object of Indian reverence; when the Pilgrims huddled, half-famished, upon the Plymouth shore Samoset the Abneki walked in among them with his greeting "Welcome, Englishmen!" and found for them food and friends; when Maqua-comen, chief of the Paw-tux-ents, helped the Maryland colonists of 1634 to found a home he said: "I love the English so well, that if they should go about to kill me, if I had so much breath as to speak I would command my people not to revenge my death, for I know that they would do no such a thing except it were through my own fault."

ON THE WATCH.

But this early loving-kindness was short-lived. The red and white races could not mingle peaceably when the white man wanted all that he could get and the red man loved,

so strongly, the land of his fathers. From Maine to Florida the war-whoop took the place of welcome and the deadly arrow quickly followed the gift of corn and fruit. Block-house and palisaded fort alike became the object of Indian attack and of stubborn defense, and the hardy troopers and "train-band men" of the

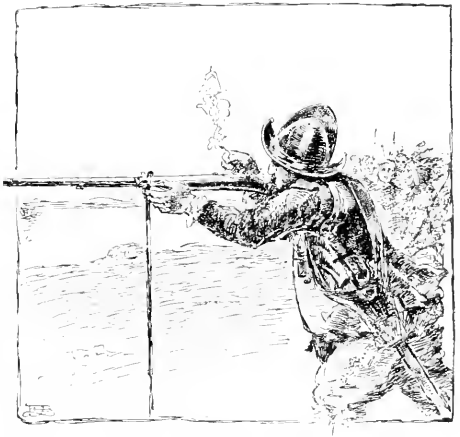
"I WOULD RATHER BE CARRIED OUT DEAD!" SAID STUYVESANT.

colonies repaid the horrors of Indian ambush and massacre with the equal horrors of burning wigwams, the hunt with bloodhounds and the relentless slaughter of chieftain, squaw and child.

Added to the terror of Indian hostilities was the dread of "foreign" invasion. With France and Spain alike claiming the right of occupation, the English colonists could never rest in peace, while, for the same reason, the Dutch settlements in the New Netherlands (a section extending from the Connecticut to the Mohawk and from Lake George to Delaware Bay) were in constant fear of attack by England. For the New Netherlands this came at last. When in 1664 an English fleet sailed through the Narrows and dropped

anchor before the little fort at New Amsterdam, the stout and stern Dutch governor Stuyvesant had no choice but to surrender to a superior force. "I would rather be carried out dead!" he cried passionately when he saw his duty. But resistance was useless. New Amsterdam lowered the flag of Holland; the English colors waved above its ramparts and the New Netherlands became "the Province of New York."

Every war in Europe had its effect in America. The quarrels of the kings were fought out in the forests and on the shores of the New World and the wiser treatment of the Indians by the Frenchmen of Canada always gave to France the terrible advantage of Indian allies.



CHAMPLAIN AND THE IROQUOIS.

The only exception to this was the steadfast friendship toward the English of the powerful Indian republic known as the Iroquois, or "Five Nations" of Central New York. Their real Indian name was Ho-de-no-sau-nee or "people of the long house," so called because of the great buildings in which they lived. The French captain and explorer Champlain, had foolishly quarreled with them in the early days of European occupation, and these warlike tribes had never forgiven France, but remained such firm friends, first of the Dutch and then of the English occupants of New York State, that they were for years the strongest bar against the French conquest and occupation of England's colonies.

In the Old World across the sea France and England had always quarreled, ever since they had become France and England: in America they quarreled just the same. France said that by the right of discovery all the land between the Alleghanies and the Rocky Mountains belonged to her: England asserted that the land she had taken on the Atlantic seaboard extended westward to the Pacific and belonged to her. So they quarreled about the land. Then France was Roman Catholic while England was Protestant, and in those days Catholic and Protestant were bitter enemies. So they quarreled about religion. But, most of all, France wanted to control the fisheries of the American coast: so did England. France was determined to "monopolize" (as we say now) the fur-trade of North America: so was England. So they quarreled about trade. And when men quarrel with one another over land, religion and trade, it becomes a pretty serious matter in which neither side will give in until one or the other is defeated for good and all.

This struggle with France really extended from the first capture of Quebec by the English on the nineteenth of July, 1629, to its final capture on the thirteenth of September, 1759 — a period of one hundred and thirty years. The treaty of peace between France and England, signed in 1763, gave to England all the French possessions in America east of the Mississippi River, and the bloody quarrel as to who owned the land came to an end.

The most famous of the Indian wars of colonial times were what are known as the Pequot War of 1637 and King Philip's War in 1675. They were dreadful times of massacre and blood and held all New England in terror. But the colonists finally prevailed. The Pequot War was brought to a close by the terrible assault on the village of Sassacus, the Pequot chief, by Captain John Mason and his men: King Philip's War was ended by the fearless methods of Captain Benjamin Church, a famous Indian fighter, and the treacherous murder of the chieftain Metacomet, whom the white men called "King Philip."

IN TREATY WITH THE IROQUOIS.

The dates to be especially remembered in the wars with France are the burning of Schenectady in the province of New York by the French and Indians in 1690, the capture of Port Royal in Nova Scotia by the English in 1710, the capture of the great fortress of Louisburg on Cape Breton Island in 1745, General Braddock's defeat by the French and Indians on July 9, 1755, the surrender of Fort William Henry to the French on August 9, 1758, the capture of Fort Duquesne by the English on November 25, 1758, and the decisive battle on the Plains of Abraham in 1759 in which both the rival generals, Montcalm the Frenchman and Wolfe the Englishman, were killed and the victory for England closed the hundred years of war.

Distressing to the colonists as must have been these foes without, even more disheartening must have been the foes within. For troubles in the home are the hardest of all to bear. And almost from the first days of settlement, such troubles had to be faced. As we have seen, all sorts of people came over the sea to America, expecting to be at once successful or rich or at the head of affairs; disappointed ambition or unsuccessful endeavors made them cross and jealous and angry with those who fared better than themselves and those who were the most discontented, because of their own shortcomings, were always ready to stir up trouble. Then there were the questions of ownership and the disputes between colonies as to how far their limits of possession reached; and, quite as hotly contested as any, were the religious quarrels in which the most earnest and most conscientious were also the most bigoted and vindictive, answering questions with persecution and arguments with banishment. Thus was Roger Williams, who differed with the ministers of Boston, driven out in 1635, but, undismayed, settled in the Rhode Island wilderness and founded the city of Providence; thus was Mrs. Anne Hutchinson, the earliest of women reformers, also driven out from Boston to meet her death from Indian arrows in the dreadful New York massacre of 1643. Thus were over-zealous

Quakers whipped "at the cart's tail" by the Dutch rulers of New Amsterdam and hanged on Boston Common by the Puritan rulers of Massachusetts Bay; from this cause the "Papists" as the Roman Catholics were called, were imprisoned in New York; the Baptists were mobbed in Virginia; Puritans and Papists came to open warfare in Maryland, and "Dissenters" and "Churchmen" broke into fierce conflict in the Carolinas.

"A WITCH."

From all this you can see that people in those old days were not as high-minded, as open-hearted, as liberal or as "kindly-affectioned one to another" — as the Bible has it — as are people to-day. Education, freedom and union have made us brothers at last. And, when people are bigoted and narrow-minded, they are apt to be superstitious and cruel. Our ancestors of two centuries ago were full of the oddest imaginations as to good and bad luck; their fathers had been so before them. They especially feared the influence of witches. If anything went wrong an evil spirit, they said, had "bewitched" things and at once they hunted about, not to see why things went wrong, but what witch had made them go wrong.

Now so many things went wrong in the early colonial days, that the poor settlers begun to think the witches had followed them across the sea, and when one or two of their ministers — in whom they had perfect confidence — said that this was so, of course everybody believed it and the hunt for the witches began. It was a dreadful time. In almost all the colonies innocent people were persecuted or put to death under the supposition that they were witches and had worked their evil "spells" upon other people, or upon cattle, crops and homes. But, harshest of all, was the time in New England when, from 1688 to 1692,

the famous "Salem witchcraft" persecution terrified all the people and led to some dreadful tragedies. Twenty persons were put to death as "witches" in Salem before the end came, and the people slowly recovered from what was a disease of the mind almost as universal as was "the grip" in 1890.

And besides all these troubles of mind and body that faced our forefathers, were others equally hard to bear. Pirates infested the coast, robbing and killing, making travel by sea unsafe and business ventures risky, while — so it was asserted — men of wealth and prominence among the colonists were partners in piracy with such freebooters as Bonnet and Worley in the Carolinas, Teach or "Blackbeard" in Philadelphia and Captain Kidd in New York. Debts and taxes oppressed the colonists as the cost of Indian wars and the exactions of the home government; while, as cruel as anything in the eyes of a people who were learning to live alone in a great land, the tyrannical measures of their English rulers, who deprived them of the rights already granted them by charter and sought to make them simply money-getters for England, wrought them to the highest pitch of indignation and set them to thinking seriously as to some means of relief.

A FIGHT WITH PIRATES.

But hard knocks and rough ways, often, we say, "make a man" of the young fellow who has to undergo them. And so it proved with the thirteen colonies of England in North America. The struggle with foes without and foes within made them at last strong, determined, self-reliant and self-helpful. Bigotry and persecution, jealousy and selfishness in time gave way to the more neighborly feelings that the necessity for mutual protection and

the growth of mutual desires create, the wisdom of a union of interests became more apparent and year by year the colonies came nearer and nearer together in hopes, in aspiration and in action.

CHAPTER IX.

WORKING TOWARD LIBERTY.

IT is the restless people who have pushed the world along. If every one had been satisfied with his lot or had been willing to put up with things as they were no progress would have been possible. Some one must "start things." And, to do this, he who tries to "start things" must be dissatisfied with his surroundings or his prospects; he must be indignant over oppression or injustice or indifference (for not to take care of people is sometimes fully as bad as to bully and distress them); he must be ambitious to advance himself or his fellow men and determined to better things if he possibly can.

There were numbers of such people who came over to America; there were still more born and brought up here amid all the influences toward liberty of thought and action that a new land creates. They and their fathers had left a world where titles were esteemed of more worth than character and where there was, as yet, too little belief in the truth that an English poet of our day has put into verse:

> "Howe'er it be, it seems to me,
> 'Tis only noble to be good.
> Kind hearts are more than coronets,
> And simple faith than Norman blood."

When boys get away from home and men from the restraints of government they are very apt to want to strike out for themselves and they object more than ever to any attempt of the far-away "powers that be" to tell them what they must do amid their new surroundings or how they must do it. So, at an early day, men in America began to think about freedom and to plan for a nobler living than was possible in the land they had left behind. For, when active, earnest people are really thrown upon their own resources they are bound to think and act for themselves.

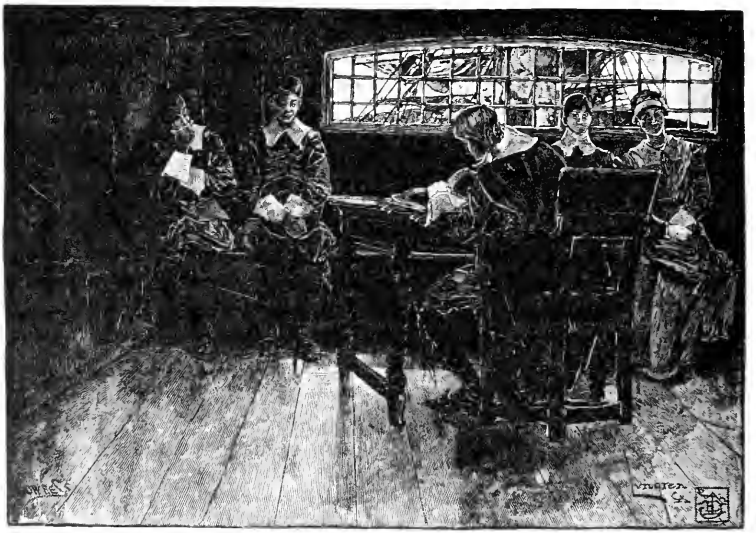
NEW YORK IN 1690.

One of the first of such acts was the Virginia Charter of 1618—"the beginning of free government in America." This charter was a paper secured by the Virginia colonists giving them the privilege of dividing the lands they had come to settle into farms which each man could own and work for himself. It also gave them a voice in making their own laws and permitted them to say who should speak for, or represent them in the "General Assembly" of the colony. To us who have never known anything different this does not seem like a great concession; but it was in those days, when no man was really free. And King James, like the crabbed old tyrant he was, was very angry at what he called the presumption of the people. So in 1624, with the help and at the suggestion of some of his very wise but very stupid advisers, he took away all these rights and made the colony a kingly "province." But the ideas of personal liberty that the wise framers of the Virginia Charter had put into that early paper lived and became, in later years, the basis for the Constitution and the Government of the United States of America.

ONE OF KING JAMES' ADVISERS.

The next step toward liberty was a remarkable paper or "compact" drawn up and signed in the cabin of the Mayflower by the Plymouth colonists who, because of their wanderings, have been called "the Pilgrims." We call it remarkable because it was a bold thing to do in those days when the people had so little to say about their own governing.

As the little vessel lay tossing off Cape Cod on the eleventh of



IN THE CABIN OF THE MAYFLOWER.

November, 1620, the forty-one men who represented the different families united in the enterprise of colonization, set their signatures to the following compact which is said to have been "the first instrument of civil government ever subscribed to as the act of the

whole people." Here it is for you to study out in all its curious old-time wording, spelling and capitals:

"*In ye Name of God, Amen.* We whose names are underwriten, the loyall subjects of our dread soveraigne Lord, King James, by ye Grace of God, of Great Britaine, France & Ireland King, Defender of ye Faith, etc. Having undertaken, for ye Glorie of God, and advancemente of ye Christian Faith and Honour of our King and countrie, a Voyage to plant ye first Colonie in ye Northerne part of Virginia, doe by these presents solemnly and mutually in ye Presence of God, and of one another, Covenant & Combine ourselves togeather into a Civill body Politick, for our better Ordering & Preservation & Furtherance of ye ends aforesaid; and by Vertue hearof to enact, constitute and frame such just and equall lawes, ordinances, Acts, Constitutions & Offices, from Time to Time, as shall be thought most meete & convenient for ye generall good of ye Colonie, unto which we promise all due submission and obedience. In witnes whereof we have hereunder subscribed our Names at Cap. Codd ye 11 of November, in ye year of ye Raigne of our Soveraigne Lord King James, of England, France & Ireland ye eighteenth, and of Scotland ye fiftie fourth, ano: Dom. 1620."

Nineteen years later — on the fourteenth of January, 1639 — the "freemen" of the three river towns of Connecticut (Windsor, Hartford and Wethersfield) met at Hartford and drew up what is said to be the first written constitution in the world. This paper did not recognize the right of any king or parliament to direct the actions of the people of Connecticut, but held all persons who were allowed a share in the affairs of the colony to be freemen. Under the articles of this constitution the people of Connecticut lived for nearly two hundred years.

The forms of government gradually adopted by the several colonies taught men to stand alone and think for themselves. In Virginia, as we have seen, it was a "General Assembly," or "House

of Burgesses," as it was more frequently called, elected by the people. In New England it was what is known as a "township" government in which the people of the various towns taxed and governed themselves upon a basis settled once a year by the grown men of the colonies in a coming together called the "town-meeting." The town-meeting also elected to office the men who were to manage public affairs during the year. In South Carolina a popular election in the several "parishes" or church divisions of the colony selected the minister and vestrymen of the church and the representatives to the colonial assembly. In Maryland and Delaware the people of the different sections, or "hundreds" as they were called — (from the old Roman word for a brotherhood, *curia*, whence came *century*, hundred) assembled in "hundred-meetings," enacted by-laws, levied taxes, appointed committees and helped to govern themselves. In Pennsylvania the officers of each local division or "county" were elected by the people. In New York the old system of village assemblies established by the early Dutch settlers was continued by their English successors; this, by direct vote of the people in a sort of town-meeting, selected the governing body of the town for the coming year.

ONE OF THE VILLAGERS.

So, you see, the colonists almost from the start learned to govern themselves and were taught the lesson of freedom. But, above the people, as the direct representative of the English king, stood the Royal Governor. He was generally a favorite or "pet" of the king; he was as a rule good for nothing as a man and worse as a governor; and he was sent over to keep the people "up to the mark" in the service of a king three thousand miles away. The king and his

A LESSON IN LIBERTY.

"*They began to think and talk and act.*"

governor were certain to have ideas and methods altogether different from those held by the people, who knew their own needs and were not slow to speak up for them. The Royal Governor was, in the opinion of the colonists, forever interfering in matters which he could not understand and in which they were deeply interested. There was, therefore, a continual quarrel going on between the governor appointed by the king and the people he had been sent over the sea to govern.

This quarrel dated from the early years of colonization, and sometimes led to popular uprisings, to blows and blood. When royal commissioners were dispatched to Virginia in 1624 to take away the liberties granted by the "charter," the "Burgesses" boldly withstood them, and, when the commissioners bribed the clerk of the Burgesses to give up the records, the tempted clerk was put into the pillory by his associates and had his ear cut off. In 1638, and again in 1645, William Clayborne in Maryland headed an armed protest against Governor Calvert and Lord Baltimore; in 1676 the plucky Virginia colonist, Nathaniel Bacon, stood out boldly against the obstinate and tyrannical Governor Berkeley, and, in what is known as "Bacon's Rebellion," forced the governor to terms, but died before victory was fully attained, the first popular leader in America. In North Carolina, in 1678, John Culpepper headed a rising against the high-handed representative of the absent Royal Governor, who denied the people's "free right of election;" in 1688 the enraged colonists of the Carolinas rose against their governor, Seth Sothel, took away his authority and banished him for a year. In 1687 and 1689 the colonists in Massachusetts and New York broke into open revolt against the tyranny of the king's representatives, imprisoning Governor Andros

KING JAMES II.

in Massachusetts and frightening away the lieutenant-governor Nicholson in New York. For, at that time, a revolution in England drove from the throne the despised King James (for whom, when he was Duke of York, the city and province of New York had been named) and so mixed up matters in the colonies that it was hard to tell just who had the right to act. Then the people resolved to act for themselves. In Massachusetts, after putting the Royal Governor, Andros, in prison, the people set up a government of their own. Connecticut saved her much-prized "charter" from seizure by the king's men by blowing out the lights just as it was to be taken away, and hiding it in a tree; that tree stood as an honored relic for nearly two hundred years afterward and was always known as "the Charter Oak." In New York, the people, left without a governor, proclaimed their right to rule themselves and appointed a patriotic citizen, named Jacob Leisler, to act as temporary governor. One of the earliest of American patriots, Jacob Leisler ruled with vigor as the "people's governor." He summoned a popular convention, arranged the first mayoralty election by the people, made the first step toward union by attempting a continental congress, and tried to make a bold strike at the power of France by an invasion of Canada. But he was disliked by the few "aristocratic" leaders of New York affairs, because he would not do as they wished but preferred to act for the whole people; they combined against him, and when the new governor appointed by the king arrived Leisler was arrested, imprisoned and hanged for treason — "the first martyr of American independence."

IN LEISLER'S TIMES.

After this, things went "from bad to worse," so far as the relations

between the people and the royal governors were concerned. There were grumblings in every colony; there were open outbreaks in some, and active opposition in all. The governors themselves had anything but a pleasant time. As the years went on the colonists grew more and more emphatic in their demand for personal liberty.

THE PEOPLE AND THE ROYAL GOVERNOR.

They saw that the land they lived in was destined to increase in importance, population and riches, but they knew that unless they had their "say" this growth would be slow or without direct benefit to them. Their English rulers granted them few rights and looked down upon them as if they were inferiors. The Americans were

not allowed to manufacture anything for their own use or for sale in England; the farmers were compelled to send their crops to England and purchase what they needed in English markets only.

It is no wonder then that the people grew restless, that they began to think and talk and act, and that at last they came to the conclusion that if the King of England denied them the right of living honest, honorable, hard-working and upright lives as loyal colonists of England in the land they had settled and cultivated, it was high time for them to deny the right of the King of England to have anything whatever to say as to their affairs.

Just then the King of England of that day (whose name and title were George the Third, and who was a particularly obstinate and unaccommodating ruler) gave his consent to certain measures that roused the people of the thirteen colonies to the greatest indignation; they led to results, too, that were as unforeseen to the Americans as they were surprising to the pig-headed King George of England, three thousand miles away.

CHAPTER X.

"THE LAST STRAW."

NATIONS as well as boys and men are often all too ready to play the bully. In 1760 the population of Great Britain was fully nine millions; the population of Great Britain's thirteen colonies in America was less than two millions.

It is very easy for nine millions to say to two millions, "You shall!" or "You shall not!" And they did say it. People in England talked of the people in America as "our subjects." Of course the Americans did not like this; they felt that they were

quite as good and certainly as wide awake as their relatives across the sea. And they said so, too.

A SMUGGLER.

Then the merchants of England felt that they owned the colonies. The people of America, as we have seen, could neither buy nor sell except through English traders; they could neither receive nor send away goods except in English vessels; and the right of trade which had been allowed them with certain French and Spanish colonies in and about the West India Islands was threatened with withdrawal. The English manufacturers and traders held, in fact, what we call in these days a monopoly of the American trade, and, caring only for what money they could make, were unwilling to allow the colonists any chance whatever for profit or trade.

This selfish spirit naturally made the Americans very angry. As a result certain of the colonists said that if England would not allow them to trade where they pleased they would do it on the sly — even though it was against the law. This was called smuggling, and England tried to punish the sailors and merchants who brought into America, unlawfully, the goods they had purchased from people with whom they were not allowed to trade. But America's coast-line was full of little creeks and bays into which the smugglers could sail without being caught and this "illicit trade," as it was called, rapidly increased and became very profitable.

GUARDING THE PORT.

In 1759 the long struggle between France and England in America was brought to an end by the defeat of the French general Montcalm on the Plains of Abraham, and the surrender of Quebec in

Canada. The cost of this long-continued strife was frightful. English tax-payers held that as these wars had been for the defense and benefit of the American colonies, America should pay the bill — or at least a certain proportion of it — and also the cost of governing and defending the colonies in the future. But the Americans did not think this was just. The wars with France, they said, had been for the benefit and glory of England. The American colonies were not allowed the right to choose or have any one to speak for them in the English Parliament, saying who should govern them or how they should be governed. "If we can be represented in the English Parliament," they said, "we are willing to be taxed for our support, but we do not propose to pay for what we do not get."

THE RIGHT OF SEARCH.

The British lawmakers, however, were determined. They would not yield to the desires of the colonists; they made new rules as to the commerce and shipping of the colonies that were harsher than the former ones; these were called the Navigation Acts. Then they ordered that the Custom House officers in America should have the right to enter any house at any time to search for smuggled goods, and, if need be, to call upon the soldiers for help. This order was called the Writ of Assistance.

Then how angry the colonists were! For they were Englishmen in nature and ancestry and they held to the truth of the old English declaration, that an Englishman's house is his castle,* into which no one but himself or his family has the right to enter uninvited.

* This was the decision of a famous English justice, Sir Edward Coke, who, in 1660, said: "The house of every one is to him as his castle and fortress, as well for his defense against injury and violence as for his repose."

So when the English authorities attempted to enforce these Writs of Assistance there was a great uproar! The colonists had grumbled and protested at the other burdens laid upon them, but for the English king to claim the right of invading the home was going too far. They resisted the Writ; and James Otis, a brilliant Boston lawyer whose duty it was as one of the lawyers for the Government to defend the service of one of these writs, resigned his office and spoke in bold and fiery words against the new injustice. "To my dying day," he declared in this memorable speech, "will I oppose, with all the power and faculties God has given me, all such instruments of slavery on the one hand and villainy on the other." It was the first outspoken word for liberty, and roused the people to enthusiasm.

And yet, angered though they were at England's tyranny, the colonists hesitated to act. England was the mother country and resistance was rebellion. They were not yet ready to go so far. They felt that all they should do was — as the old saying runs — to "grin and bear it." But they really could not "grin" over tyranny and they soon determined not to bear it.

THE HATED STAMPS.

For, one day came the climax. It is the last straw in the overburdening load, you know, that breaks the camel's back. And in the year 1765, on the eighth of March, King George and his councilors tried to put the last straw on the overloaded back of the colonial camel. On that day the English Parliament passed the measure now famous in history as the Stamp Act.

This celebrated act was but one among a number of measures adopted by Parliament for taxing the American colonies, but it was particularly objectionable. It required that all newspapers, almanacs, marriage certificates, pamphlets and legal documents of every description should be upon stamped paper or have pasted upon them

stamps furnished by the English Government and purchased from the agents appointed to sell them in the colonies. It was considered as the "entering wedge" for other tyrannical acts. "If the king can tax our trade," the colonists said, "why not our lands?" And from Maine to Georgia the cry arose, "No taxation without representation." People do not object to pay taxes when they themselves order the taxes and are benefited by the money that comes from such taxation; but to be taxed without a word to say in the matter and to be forced to pay, no matter how objectionable the method and manner of collection, makes people angry. And so the people of America broke out into loud and rebellious words. James Otis in Massachusetts and Patrick Henry in Virginia, and other speakers of prominence and influence aroused their hearers to a pitch of enthusiasm; local rivalries were forgotten in the general indignation; the demand for a union of the colonies in opposition to the tyranny of England was universal; acts of violence and insubordination against the stamp agents and the English governors and officials were committed in every colony; patriotic associations called the "Sons of Liberty" were formed; and on the seventh of October, 1765, a Colonial Congress, consisting of delegates from nine of the thirteen colonies, assembled at New York and adopted three protests against taxation — one of these they called a "Declaration of Rights," one "An address to the King," and one a "Memorial to Parliament."

This wide-spread opposition on the part of the colonies, the refusal of the Americans to buy or to use the stamps, their agreement with one another not to import, buy, use or wear any article of English manufacture until the Stamp Act was "repealed" — that is, declared by the English Parliament to be no longer in force — exerted so great an influence in England, especially upon the merchants who saw that this stand of the Americans would cause them to lose both trade and money, that in 1766 after much debate and many bitter words, the English Parliament repealed the Stamp Act.

The result was received by the colonists with the greatest joy; but when they learned that, in place of the Stamp Act other measures had been adopted for raising money from the colonies by taxation, without granting them representation or securing their

PREPARING FOR "HOMESPUN" CLOTHES.

consent, the people again protested. Thereupon the English government sent soldiers across the sea to see that the tax laws were enforced and ordered that the people should pay for the board

and lodging of the soldiers who were sent over to force them into submission.

This was too much. New York refused to provide for the soldiers sent to that province and Parliament, as a punishment, took away the colony's right to hold its own legislature. Massachusetts urged the colonies to call another congress for self-preservation and Parliament ordered Massachusetts to recall its action. When the

UNWELCOME LODGERS.

colony refused its legislature was dissolved and four regiments of soldiers were sent to Boston to keep the town in order.

This was in 1768. From this time on things grew worse and worse. The people hated the soldiers as the representatives of England's tyranny. The soldiers already treated the people as rebels. From words they came to blows. On the eighteenth of

January, 1770, the citizens of New York made the first stand against the king's troops in a street fight known as the "Battle of Golden Hill" and on the fifth of March, in the same year, an unexpected fight in King Street, Boston, developed into the bloody brawl that has since been called "the Boston Massacre."

Everybody was aroused. It looked very much as if war was at hand. But Parliament, fearing that it had perhaps gone too far, took off all the taxes save one — that on tea.

But this was adding insult to injury. The American colonies were not making their firm stand to save money but to gain their rights. It did not matter what was taxed or how much it was taxed. What they resisted was any tax without the right of representation. They refused to buy tea. They refused even to drink it; they drank, instead, tea made from sage or raspberry-leaves, or other American plants. New York and Philadelphia sent back the tea-ships unloaded. Charleston stored the tea in damp cellars and spoiled it. In Boston the British men-of-war blocked the way and refused to let the tea-ships out of the harbor. A great public meeting in the Old South Church requested the Governor to let the tea-ships go back and, when he refused, fifty men disguised as Indians rushed to Griffin's Wharf, boarded the tea-ships and smashed and flung overboard three hundred and forty-two chests of tea. This occurred on the night of the sixteenth of December, 1773, and has ever since been known as the "Boston Tea Party."

Enraged at this open defiance Parliament ordered the port of Boston closed — that is, said that no ships could go in or out — and the business of the town was well-nigh ruined. This was called the Boston Port Bill. The other colonies stood up for Boston; they sent it aid and supplies and cheering words and, one after another, the thirteen colonies agreed to neither buy nor sell to England (to "boycott" it, in fact, as we say to-day) and to join in a general congress.

This congress of the thirteen colonies — since known as the First

Continental Congress—assembled at Carpenter's Hall in Philadelphia on the fifth of September, 1774, and petitioned the king and Parliament of England to restore the rights they had withdrawn. But it was of no use. King and parliament were stubborn.

The war is inevitable, and let it come! I repeat it, sir, let it

A WEAK-KNEED PATRIOT AND HER SLY CUP OF TEA.

come!" cried Patrick Henry in Virginia in that famous speech which every American boy, and, I hope, every American girl knows by heart. The war was inevitable. It had come at last.

CHAPTER XI.

THE FIRST BLOW FOR FREEDOM.

REBELLION is the open or armed resistance to lawful authority. When that resistance is successful it is Revolution. You see, now, why we call our war for independence the American Revolution. It was a successful rebellion against English authority, and completely changed — or "revolutionized" — the government of the people of America.

There were many dark and bitter days before the rebellion became a revolution, but the story of the struggle is full of interest. You have already seen how the trouble grew, as, passing from objection to protest and from protest to insubordination, it developed at last into open defiance, resistance and war.

When Samuel Adams of Boston (the "prophet of independence" as he has been called) declared in the Old South Church "this meeting can do nothing more to save the country" and cheered on the make-believe Indians to the "Boston Tea Party," the American Revolution began. From Maine to Georgia people began to talk of war, and when the English Parliament rejected the proposals of the Continental Congress of 1774, the spirit of rebellion was ready to burst into a flame.

SAMUEL ADAMS.

It takes but a spark to set the tinder ablaze, and the spark came at last. The cabinet of King George declared as "traitors and rebels" all who were disloyal to the king; war-ships and soldiers were dispatched to Boston which was declared to be "the hot bed of rebellion;"

and the Royal Governor, General Gage, was ordered to seize or destroy all munitions of war held by the colonists and to fire upon the people should he deem it necessary.

Acting under these orders General Gage seized the arms and powder stored in the old powder house on Quarry Hill (in the present city of Somerville) three miles from Boston and took secret measures to seize the stores at Salem and at Concord.

PAUL REVERE'S RIDE

Now as these stores and munitions of war were the property of the province of Massachusetts it was held that the king had no right to take them and after the seizure at Somerville the provincial congress — as the "rebel" legislature of the province called itself — determined to save these stores for its own need. A mob of indignant patriots frightened away the small force sent to Salem and some one* told the Americans of the secret designs upon the stores at Concord and the two signal lanterns hung in the belfry of the Old North Church of Boston gave warning of the plans of the British.

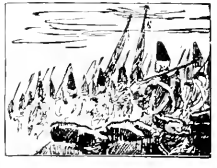
Then it was that Paul Revere made his famous night ride from Boston to Concord to arouse the farmers against the British designs. Of course you all know Mr. Longfellow's splendid poem "Paul Revere's Ride," telling how this brave "scout of liberty" spread the news. Just read it again, right here, to refresh your memory and then you will understand how excited the people were and how the "minute men" from all the country round caught up their

* It is said that this "some one" was no less a person than Mrs. Gage, the wife of the Royal Governor. She was an American woman and said to be "friendly to liberty."

arms and hurried to the highway that led from Boston to Concord. These "minute men" were colonial militia men pledged to be in readiness for any call to arms, and prepared to march when the warning came — "at a minute's notice." They came; and on Lexington Common and by the North Bridge at Concord they struck the first blow for liberty.

> "You know the rest. In the books you have read
> How the British Regulars fired and fled;
> How the farmers gave them ball for ball
> From behind each fence and farm-yard wall,
> Chasing the red-coats down the lane,
> Then crossing the fields to emerge again
> Under the trees at the turn of the road,
> And only pausing to fire and load."

Eight hundred "red-coats," as the British soldiers were called, marched from Boston on the eighteenth of April, 1775. When they reached Lexington Common half an hour before sunrise on the nineteenth of April between sixty and seventy minute men were drawn up "just north of the meeting-house" to resist their advance.



"Disperse, ye villains! ye rebels, disperse! lay down your arms! Why don't you lay down your arms and disperse?" called out Major Pitcairn, the leader of the British advance.

The minute men of Lexington were sixty against eight hundred. But they were not there to disperse. "Too few to resist, too brave to fly," as Mr. Bancroft says of them, they simply stood their ground.

"Fire!" shouted Pitcairn, and under the deadly discharge of British muskets seven of the "rebels" fell dead and nine were wounded. Then the British marched on to Concord.

But their leader Colonel Smith saw that the country was roused and that he should have to fight his way back. He sent at once to

Boston for reinforcements and nearly two thirds of all the "red-coats" in the town were hurried off to the help of their comrades.

Meanwhile these comrades had marched on to Concord. There they found but few of the "stores" they had been sent to destroy. Two cannons were spiked in the tavern yard; sixty barrels of flour were broken in pieces; five hundred pounds of ball were thrown into the mill pond; the liberty pole was cut down and some private houses were broken into. That was all. A hundred or more soldiers were sent to guard the North Bridge across the Concord River and, while there, the minute men of Acton, led on by the schoolmaster, marched down the hill to the bridge. The British soldiers, seeing the colonists coming on, began to tear up the planks of the bridge; the Americans broke into a run; the British fired and the schoolmaster fell dead. Then Major Buttrick of Concord cried out, "Fire, fellow soldiers!" and "Fire, fire, fire!" echoed his men. They fired; two of the British fell; the rest turning ran toward the main body of the "invaders" and the minute men held the bridge.

THE BRIDGE AT CONCORD.

That was the battle of Concord! For the first time the long-suffering American colonists had turned upon their tormentors and there by the flowing Concord River, as Mr. Emerson says, they

"Fired the shot heard round the world."

Colonel Smith and his eight hundred red-coats turned toward home. From every point the minute men hurried to the highway

THE BRITISH ARE COMING!

"The whole country round was now fully roused. Minute men came from every direction."

to "chase them back." At Lexington, nearly worn out, they met Lord Percy's reinforcement, twelve hundred strong. He and his men had marched from Boston to the tune of "Yankee Doodle" in contempt of the colonists. But they soon "changed their tune," and when they turned for home the march back to Boston was but a sorry race for life.

"IT RAINED REBELS."

The whole country round was now fully roused. Minute men came from every direction. Lining the highway they fired "from fence and farm-yard wall," while the very clouds, so the bewildered British declared, "seemed to rain rebels." Back hurried the red-coats defeated, dispirited, beset. Like bull-dogs the aroused farmers with flint-lock musket and old "king's arm" followed up the retreat, barking and biting to the last, until, just after sunset, the straggling red-coats escaped across Charlestown Neck and were safe beneath the protecting batteries of Boston town.

It had been a dreadful day for them. Two hundred and seventy-three men were either killed, wounded or missing; of the Americans eighty-eight had been killed or wounded. But, greater than the loss in men had been the fatal mistake of the troops of the king. The war had come at last; they were the aggressors; they, too, had been the chief sufferers. All hope of avoiding a bloody quarrel was now past. The news of the "Battle of Lexington," as it has ever since been called, spread like a prairie fire. From all New England militia and minute men hastened to the aid of their countrymen. The people rose in war, and before the first of May, 1775, the king's soldiers were securely shut up in Boston by an army of nearly twenty thousand "rebels."

The first blow for liberty had been a decisive one. "We determine to die or be free," the Massachusetts Congress wrote, after the day of Lexington, to the people of England. And when swift riders carried the news of the fight north, west and south, the patriot colonists from the Green Mountains to the Carolina rivers and the Kentucky borders sprang to arms and echoed the stern words of Massachusetts: "We determine to die or be free."

CHAPTER XII.

THE AMERICAN REVOLUTION.

THE colonists could now take no backward step. And there seemed to be no desire to. They were in earnest and they acted as if they were. The news of the fight at Concord and Lexington roused the patriots in other parts of the land. People began to talk of separation from England; they began to plan for independence.

And yet the leaders moved cautiously. They did not know their own strength; they only knew that the people seemed determined not to be bullied by England. So they summoned another Congress to determine on peace or war.

It would be an unequal contest. On one side was England with all the power and all the advantage of a trained and unconquered army; on the other was a handful of feeble settlements, without army, money, standing or preparation for war, strung along an undefended stretch of broken coast line, the deep sea to the east and to the west only the trackless forests and hordes of hostile Indians.

But men will dare to do much in defense of their rights. Lexington strengthened their arm. Following fast upon the battle of

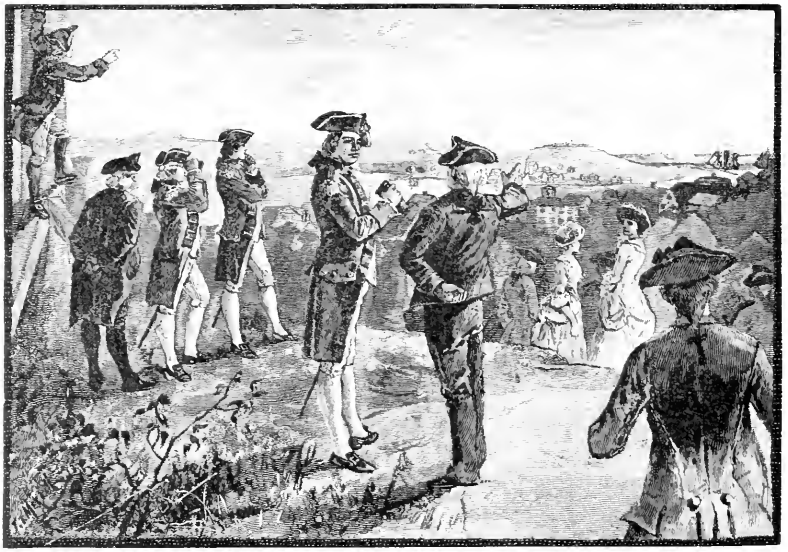
Lexington came the bold move by which on the tenth of May, 1775, Ethan Allen and his one hundred Green Mountain Boys captured the British post of Fort Ticonderoga on Lake Champlain, demanding the surrender of the fortress "in the name of the Great Jehovah and the Continental Congress;" and from that day the war fever grew greatly.

Around the beleaguered British in Boston lay the patriot army, really without a leader, but determined to hold the regulars at bay or drive them into the sea. Reinforcements came to the army of the king and now, twelve thousand strong, its officers and sympathizers (called "tories") declared that the rebels were but a pack of blusterers and would not fight.

Ethan Allen

Would they not? This question was speedily answered. On the morning of the seventeenth of June, 1775, the British generals finding that the "Yankee Doodles" were fortifying one of the Charlestown hills, sent three thousand red-coats across the Mystic with orders to drive off the rebels. They did, but at what a cost. Three times they charged up the hill to where Colonel Prescott and his thousand men awaited the attack. Twice were they sent reeling down the slope, baffled by the deadly fire of the Americans. With the third volley the ammunition of the Americans gave out and the British troops finally carried the hill after a stubborn hand-to-hand fight. The Battle of Bunker Hill was won. But ten hundred and fifty-four in killed and wounded was the cost to the British of that doubtful victory, and it proved to all the world that the Americans would fight. From that day the British troops never cared to storm a "rebel" earthwork.

All that the Americans now needed was a leader. And he was speedily forthcoming. The North had opened the Revolution; the South should give it a leader. On the very day of the Battle of Bunker Hill — the seventeenth of June, 1775 — the Second Conti-



"THE REBELS ARE FORTIFYING BUNKER HILL."

nental Congress, in session at Philadelphia, voted to raise and equip an army of twenty thousand men, and elected Colonel George Washington of Virginia as "generalissimo" or commander-in-chief.

In all the land no better choice could have been found. George Washington had been trained from early youth to leadership and direction. He was as strong of character as he was noble of soul;

he was patient, persistent, fair-minded, generous and brave; his strength of will was inspiring, his power of self-control remarkable, and he was absolutely truthful. He was a natural leader. As a boy he was captain of the company of small Virginians he drilled and marshaled. At sixteen he was a surveyor and "roughed it" in the Indian country; at twenty he was a major in the king's service; at twenty-five he was commander-in-chief of the Virginia forces. It was he who fired the first shot in the French wars of 1754, led the attack at Great Meadows, and by his valor, alone, saved the terrible defeat of the English general Braddock from becoming a massacre. He knew the weakness as well as the strength, the endurance as well as the independence of the colonial soldier, and no man was better suited to lead the troops of revolution to victory, to guide them in skillful retreat or to save them from the disgrace of surrender. Other generals in the Revolutionary army were as brave, others as self-sacrificing, others as skillful as he, but not one combined all the excellencies that go toward making a great soldier except George Washington. His record as a leader alike in victory and defeat, was such that students of the art of war accord to General Washington the rank of a "great commander."

On the third of July, 1775, Washington assumed command of the American army drawn up to receive him on the Commons of Cambridge, and his headquarters were in the old Craigie House, still standing, and equally cherished by all Americans as the military home of Washington the soldier, and the peaceful home of Longfellow the poet. He declined to receive any pay for his services, went at once to work to organize his army of fourteen thousand undisciplined militia men and kept General Gage and his red-coats so tightly locked up in Boston town, that they were at last forced to run away from the city by sea. This they did on the seventeenth of March, 1776. Washington and the victorious Continental troops marched into the city and Boston's long slavery was over.

On the first of January, 1776, the new flag of the Revolution was

raised over the American camp on Prospect Hill; and on the fourth of July, 1776, the Continental Congress assembled in Independence Hall in the city of Philadelphia declared the thirteen United Colonies to be "free and independent States" — that they were "absolved from all allegiance to the British crown, and that all political connection between them and the State of Great Britain is and ought to be totally dissolved." This was the immortal "Declaration of Independence," and ever since that memorable act the fourth of July has been celebrated as the birthday of the United States of America.

But to declare a thing is not always to do it. The Declaration was but the first step toward independence. Much was to be attempted, much suffered, much lost and won before the United States were really free and independent. For nearly seven years, from the nineteenth of April, 1775, to the nineteenth of October, 1781 — from the first blood at Lexington to the last blood at Yorktown — did the unequal conflict rage before the King of England, his councilors and his people would acknowledge themselves beaten by the spirit of liberty that had grown up across the sea. Then at last they reluctantly gave in. A treaty of peace with the new "nation" was signed at Paris on the third of September, 1783, and on the twenty-fifth of November following, the British soldiers evacuated the city of New York and Liberty triumphed.

It had been a stubborn fight between determined men. When once the war was really entered upon and the evacuation of Boston showed the King of England and his advisers that it was to be fought in earnest, the British leaders sought by every means to secure success. They sent large armies to America, swelling their ranks by hiring for money thousands of European troops called Hessians; they tried in every way to frighten and overawe the steadfast "rebels," and gave honors and reward to those Americans who remained loyal to the king and who were called "tories." They sought to occupy the chief centers of population North and

South and to achieve the conquest of the country from these points. But all to no purpose. With a less number of troops, poorly armed, poorly fed and scantily clothed, and with all the chances of war

GENERAL GEORGE WASHINGTON.

against him, General Washington so planned and fought that, inch by inch, he won the disputed territory from the over-confident red-coats, and brought victory at last to the Continental forces.

After its beginning at Boston, the Revolutionary War may be divided into three periods of fighting: the struggle for the Hudson, the struggle for the Delaware and the struggle for the Carolinas.

A "CONTINENTAL."

Defeated at the Battle of Long Island, Washington retreated through New Jersey and won the battle of Trenton; defeated at Germantown he retreated into the gloom of that sorry winter of Valley Forge, coming out in the spring to fight and win the Battle of Monmouth. He drove the British from Boston; he forced them from Philadelphia; his planning relieved Charleston and the Carolinas, and finally brought about the British surrender at Yorktown. It was Washington's persistent refusal to stay beaten but to come up again and again to what seemed a useless fight that drew to his side the gallant young Frenchman the Marquis de Lafayette, and won for the new United States the alliance and aid of France. On the thirteenth of January, 1778, a treaty of alliance with France was signed, and from that date the success of the revolt was never doubtful.

The dark days of the war were the defeats at Quebec, where the gallant Montgomery was slain while storming the British citadel; at Long Island and White Plains, where the raw troops of Washington were no match for the British regulars; at Brandywine and Germantown which lost Philadelphia to the Americans; and at Charleston and Camden which for a time "wiped out" the southern army of the patriots. Darker still were the dreary days at Valley Forge when all seemed lost indeed; the hateful treason of Benedict Arnold, one of Washington's trusted generals, and the days, when by the selfish combination of enemies in the army and in the Congress (in

what is known as "the Conway Cabal"), General Washington was very nearly forced from his position as commander of the American army.

But the bright days are what we most thankfully remember they were what gave strength to American endeavor and made for the cause of liberty friends across the sea. As Lexington and Concord and Bunker Hill are names to be forever cherished so, too, are the names of Trenton where through icy perils the patriots pushed on to victory; of Princeton which saved New Jersey; of Saratoga which saw the surrender of the pompous and boastful British general Burgoyne who had declared that with ten thousand men he would "promenade through America;" of Stony Point where, borne on the shoulders of his men, the wounded leader, dear to all Americans as "Mad Anthony Wayne," charged into the British fort and won it at the point of the bayonet; of Fort Sullivan in Charleston Harbor where the brave General Moultrie "held the fort," and Sergeant Jasper, in the face of the enemy, rescued the fallen flag and hoisted it again over the battered ramparts; and, last of all, of Yorktown where on the nineteenth of October, 1781, Cornwallis and the British army surrendered as prisoners of war to Washington the American and the Frenchman Rochambeau.

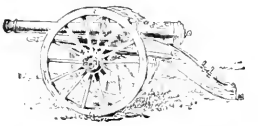
ANTHONY WAYNE.

And in this record of the fight for liberty we must not forget the struggle on the sea. The American colonies had no navy, but they had many plucky sailors and men who loved salt water. Early in the struggle privateers were sent out — that is, small vessels fitted out by private persons but authorized by the Congress to annoy and capture British ships and supplies. Soon the privateers were followed by men-of-war and the names of Captains Biddle and Manly, Mugford and Read, Weeks and Conyngham and Whipple are worthy to stand in memory beside the heroes of Lexington and

Bunker Hill, of Stony Point and Valley Forge. But, chief of all the Revolutionary sea-fighters, is John Paul Jones, the captain of the Bonhomme Richard and conqueror of the British man-of-war Serapis. Lashed together, the two ships waged a fearful struggle for hours; when the British captain thought the "Yankee pirate" was conquered he shouted across to him: "The Richard ahoy! Have you struck your colors?" and back came the valiant answer of the plucky "Yankee pirate," "I have not yet begun to fight." Then he really did begin and did not stop until the Serapis struck her colors.

JOHN PAUL JONES.

The American Revolution was a stubborn and gallant fight against tyranny; it was the answer of those who would be free men to those who sought to keep them slaves. From it we may all, young and old alike, learn why we should persevere if we feel that we are right even when the times seem darkest and things are going wrong; and, more than all, by it we are taught that whatever is worth having is worth striving for. Liberty could not have come to America without the struggle and blood of our forefathers; and their endeavors and their sacrifices preached the noblest of sermons and showed to a watching world the real worth of liberty.



CHAPTER XIII.

THE MEN OF THE REVOLUTION.

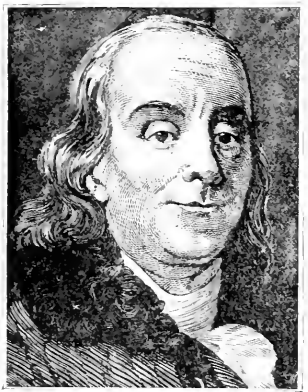
WHEN you watch a base-ball game what is it that interests you most through it all — the players or the result of their play? Do you not soon forget this or that boy in whose good work you place so much confidence and think more of the score that is being made or wonder whether the great playing of your favorite nine is really going to give them the victory? It is so in life. Acts are more than actors; principles are more then men. What a city, a State or a nation is striving for is of more importance than the leaders in the struggle or the great men whose names we reverence and applaud.

FRENCH'S STATUE OF THE MINUTE MAN.

And yet we are all hero-worshipers and love to linger over the names and deeds of those who have contributed to the success of great principles, the results of noble deeds. For this reason it is well for us, at this point, to look over the years of struggle that led the thirteen English Colonies of North America "through night to light" and laid the foundation of the United States of America.

They were of three classes: the agitators, the organizers, the fighters. The agitators, or those who prepared the minds of the people for the struggle, began their work years and years before Lexington or the Declaration of Independence were thought of. These were the men who saw that kingly power and the people's will would not work together and who resisted, by word or deed, the attempts of king or governor to cut away the rights of the

people. Such men were Nathaniel Bacon, and John Culpepper and Jacob Leisler, whose "rebellions" have been referred to in earlier chapters; such, too, were John Wise, the minister of Ipswich in Massachusetts who, a hundred years before the Revolution, boldly preached against "taxation without representation"; and Peter Zenger, the New York printer, who in his newspaper, in 1733, boldly stood out against king and governor; and Andrew Hamilton, the Philadelphia lawyer who, defending Zenger, spoke so eloquently for what we now call "the liberty of the press," that the printer was acquitted and the governor dared not again accuse him. These are but a few among the "forerunners of freedom" whose names should be held in remembrance; to them, and to others like them who left their mark upon our colonial history, was due much of that manly and outspoken desire to be self-supporting that led to the later struggle for independence — a desire founded upon that noble utterance which is believed to have been made by Dr. Benjamin Franklin: "Rebellion to tyrants is obedience to God."



DR. BENJAMIN FRANKLIN.

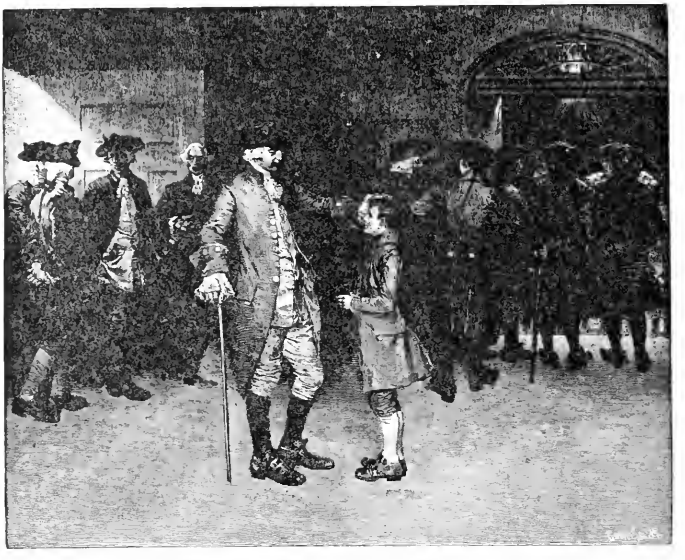
Of this remarkable man Americans have ever been proud. And well they may be. Benjamin Franklin was a poor Boston boy, born in 1706, who educated himself, learned the printer's trade and, when seventeen years old, went to Philadelphia where he gradually rose to position, influence and fame. An editor, an author, a philosopher, an inventor, a statesman and a patriot, Franklin made the title of "an American" known and honored in Europe, and, by his wisdom, his eloquence and his influence, stood foremost among those great men of the Revolution to whom we give the name of the organ-

izers. Largely through his exertions was the king of England brought to repeal the hated "Stamp Act;" he was one of the committee to draft the Declaration of Independence; he was sent as Ambassador to France and gained the French aid that helped the Revolution to final success; he was one of the makers of the treaty of peace with England and one of the framers of the Constitution of the United States. The young "tramp-printer," who in 1723 entered Philadelphia, poor, friendless, hungry and hopeful, died in that city in 1790 at the age of eighty-four, its most honored citizen and the one American who, to-day, shares in all the world the glory and renown of Washington.

Washington and Franklin have, indeed, been the two names that from the days of Revolution, have been associated as the greatest leaders in that historic struggle. But even Franklin's fame halts far beneath that of George Washington. In the minds of men as well as of boys the successful fighter is a much greater hero than the agitator or the organizer. We like to see a man who never knows when he is whipped; who has what we call "grit;" who accepts defeat without a murmur, but rather as a spur to new effort. But Washington had far more than this. He was as strong of character as he was of arm; as noble of soul as he was firm of purpose. His abilities as a soldier were equalled by his qualities as a statesman; and from the day when, beneath the historic elm on Cambridge Common, he took command of the Continental army to the day when he rode into New York at the heels of the last departing British regiment, he never faltered in his fidelity to the cause of freedom, or lost faith in its final and complete success.

But though the names of Washington and Franklin lead all others in the story of the Men of the Revolution there are those linked with them to whom equal honor and equal praise are due. On this roll we read the name of James Otis, who made the first eloquent appeal for liberty and was branded by the king's men as "the great incendiary of New England;" Samuel Adams — called "the last of

the Puritans." — who, poor but incorruptible, "aimed steadily at the good of his country and the best interests of mankind" and did more than any one else to "put the revolution in motion;" Patrick Henry, the "man of the people," whose fiery eloquence and dauntless courage roused Virginia to stand side by side with Massachusetts



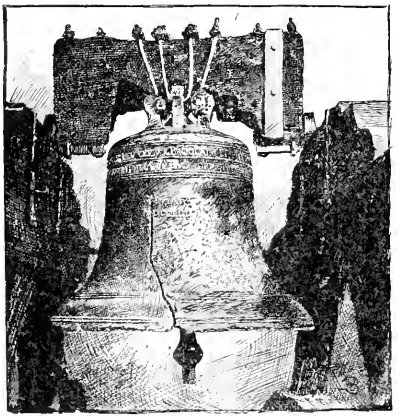
JOHN ADAMS PROPHESYING "THE GLORIOUS FOURTH."*

in the struggle for freedom: "I know not what course others may take," he cried, "but as for me, give me liberty or give me death;" John Adams, wise, far-seeing, statesmanlike, the inspirer of our "Fourth of July" celebrations, who, years before the Revolution,

* "It will be celebrated by succeeding generations," said John Adams, "from one end of the continent to the other, as the great anniversary festival."

believed in the great mission of America and in the early days of the struggle, replied to a friend who warned him against braving the power of England: "swim or sink, live or die, survive or perish with my country is my unalterable determination;" John Hancock, President of the Continental Congress, proscribed as a traitor by George the Third — dignified, impartial, quick in action, determined in purpose, who urged the people of Boston, "Not only pray, but act; if necessary fight and even die for the prosperity of our Jerusalem," and who, when he put his bold signature to the Declaration of Independence, said, laughingly: "There; John Bull can read my name without spectacles. Now let him double the price on my head, for this is my defiance;" Christopher Gadsden, the boldest in denouncing British oppression, the first to speak for American independence, "whose unselfish love of country," says Mr. Bancroft, "was a constant encouragement to his countrymen never to yield;" Thomas Jefferson, the greatest Democrat, the sworn foe to aristocracy and kingly power, the author of the Declaration of Independence, and through that immortal paper, "the beginner of a new age of the world;" John Jay, a statesman and a patriot of elevated motives, and the purest character who, before the struggle begun, took a bold stand for America's rights and wrote in his address to the British people: "Know, then, that we consider ourselves, and do insist that we are and ought to be, as free as our fellow-subjects in Great Britain and that no power on earth has a right to take our property from us without our consent;" Roger Sherman, a farmer and a shoemaker, a jurist and a statesman, signer of the Declaration and "one of the great men of his time," who set the bells of New Haven a-ringing as he declared that "the parliament of Great Britain can rightfully make laws for America in no case whatever;" Robert Morris, the "moneyed man" and financier of the Revolution, who, in 1777, declared that Washington was "the greatest man on earth," and who, through faith in Washington's ability as well as in the cause

of freedom, when hope was lowest and American credit was dead, pledged his own fortune and, on the promise of his own name, borrowed the money to carry on the war; Richard Henry Lee, who, quickly repenting his application for the post of collector under the hated Stamp Act, became instead that Act's most vehement foeman, introduced into the Continental Congress the first resolution looking toward independence, and wrote in the address to the British people: "On the sword, therefore, we are compelled to rely for protection. Of this at least we are assured, that our struggle will be glorious, our success certain; since even in death we shall find that freedom which in life you forbid us to enjoy;" Henry Laurens, the incorruptible, in whose Charleston office boys were trained to habits of honesty, integrity and industry in business, and who, kept a strict prisoner in the Tower of London, resisted all attempts of the British government to shake his fortitude or purchase his patriotism; and, not to extend the list, Peyton Randolph, who, though attorney-general for the king, when he "saw the right," resigned his office and its rewards and stood out boldly for justice, for resistance and for independence.



THE LIBERTY BELL.
(Now in Independence Hall, Philadelphia.)

These were among the leaders in council and congress. And in the field were others equally worthy remembrance — Joseph Warren, "who fell at Bunker Hill," and who, though president of the Provincial Congress of Massachusetts, refused the command of its army of minute men and continentals at that famous battle, pre-

IN MARION'S CAMP.

"Francis Marion called by the baffled British the 'Swamp Fox.'"

ferring to serve as a volunteer and saying to one who warned him to be cautious: "I know that I may fall, but where is the man who does not think it glorious and delightful to die for his country?" Richard Montgomery, the intrepid leader of a forlorn hope, but for whose death in the very front of his assaulting line, the "rebel defeat" at Quebec might have proved an important victory; Nathan Hale, the "martyr," young, brilliant, enthusiastic, who, condemned to die as a spy by his British captors, only regretted that he had but one life to lose for his country; Alexander Hamilton, the boy captain, the friend and aide-de-camp of Washington, the fiery young advocate of liberty, who replied to the taunt of the tories that the colonists would soon quarrel and disagree: "I please myself with the flattering prospect that they will, ere long, unite in one indissoluble chain;" Nathaniel Greene, "the victorious," who saved the South by his able generalship and crippled his own estate to feed and clothe his soldiers; Francis Marion, the borderer, called by the baffled British "the Swamp Fox," whose name is revered by all Americans as that of "one of the purest men, the truest patriot, and the most adroit general that American history can boast;" Philip Schuyler, the general who could be true even under unjust suspicion, the real conqueror of Burgoyne, the unselfish soldier of whom Daniel Webster declared that he stood scarcely below Washington in the services he rendered his country.

But where can we stop? The list of American heroes in camp and council is long enough to fill a volume, while those who fought in the ranks and those who suffered for the cause at home — unknown heroes whose glorious deeds have never been recorded — could their names but be collected, would make a roll of heroism, limited only by the number of American patriots. For all were heroes then. Though some at times were timid and some at times lost faith; though traitors like Benedict Arnold and jealous self-seekers like Charles Lee well-nigh wrecked the cause of liberty and made the heart of its great leader to bleed and smart; though see-

tions at times were "mad" with sections and men "put out" with men, so that the progress of revolution was almost stopped by jealousies and disputes; though money ran low and credit gave out and suffering and privation led to weakness and to loss; though defeat dulled the zeal of patriots and the cruelties of war tried the courage of the bravest; yet still, through it all, the spirit of persevering

THE BOSTON BOYS AND GENERAL GAGE.

patriotism swayed alike the men and the women, the boys and the girls of the Revolution. The indignation that led the Boston boys to protest to General Gage against the petty tyranny of his soldiers who had trampled down their cherished "slides" was the same spirit that animated their fathers to fight against British tyranny even to the bitter end and that brought in at last that success that

so many had prayed for, so many had worked for, so many had fought for, through seven long years of struggle and disaster, of defeat and loss, of hope and faith and a glorious persistence.

CHAPTER XIV.

STARTING OUT IN LIFE.

WHEN any prize is won, when any desired end is reached, when any thing that one has hoped, or worked, or fought for is at last obtained, the world, looking on, asks concerning him who has secured the prize: "What will he do with it?" From the boy in Franklin's wise old story who "paid too dear for his whistle" to the young man who has reached his "freedom," the girl who has received her diploma, the man or woman who has attained fame or wealth or position — the same question applies to all: "What will he do with it?"

The thirteen revolted colonies, assuming the sounding title of "The United States of America" had won independence. What would they do with it? There were plenty to ask the question. The world looked on to scorn, to criticise, to sneer; for liberty was not yet accepted as the birthright of every man, and king-cursed Europe had but little faith in the success of the republic-experiment across the western sea.

And, in fact, many in the newly-delivered land itself doubted and hesitated, beset with gloomy fears. There was talk of giving up the idea of a republic and establishing a monarchy; there was even a foolish movement started (at which none was angrier than the great patriot himself) to proclaim Washington as king and for a

time people were "all at sea" just what to do with the liberty they had secured.

During the Revolution the colonies — or States as they were now called — had been held together in some sort of government by the Continental Congress and the paper its members had drawn up, called the "Articles of Confederation." But this was really ac-

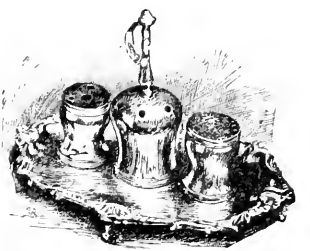
THREATS OF RESISTANCE TO TAXATION.

cepted as a government only because of the desperate needs of war. The Continental Congress merely governed by general consent; it had no authority to govern. It agreed, in 1778, upon certain rights and powers which were called the "Articles of Confederation" and which stated that the thirteen united colonies, thereafter to be known as the United States of America, did by these articles "enter into a firm league of friendship with each other for their common defense, the security of their liberties and their mutual and general welfare."

This was well enough for a time of war. But it was not government. And now peace had come. Many clear-headed men in

America speedily saw that neither the Continental Congress nor its Articles of Confederation were of any further use. Liberty had been won, but it was liberty without union. The country was weak and exhausted from the wounds of war; prosperity that the people had looked for as one of the first results of freedom did not come; the States, relieved from the strain of war, began to quarrel with one another over boundaries and trade; the talk of taxation led to angry threats of resistance; bloodshed was feared and State after State threatened unless this or that was done to "secede" from "the confederation." Congress had no authority; people obeyed or disobeyed its commands as they saw fit; the State governments had more real power than had the congress, and young Alexander Hamilton perplexed by the way things looked said sadly: "A nation without a national government is an awful spectacle."

And it was from such men as this young Alexander Hamilton that relief at last came. From the very first he had seen that only in union was there strength. Before the close of the Revolution, in the year 1780, he had written to his friend the congressman James Duane: "We must have a vigorous confederation if we mean to succeed in the contest and be happy thereafter." And in that very letter this remarkable young man of twenty-three outlined many of the provisions that, later, found a place in the Constitution of the United States.



INKSTAND USED IN SIGNING THE CONSTITUTION.

For this is what came in due time — a paper drawn up and signed by the representatives of the people and accepted by each and all of the several States, by the agreements in which the United States of America were to be guided and governed. This is known as the Constitution of the United States. It was adopted in the year 1787, at a meeting together in the city

of Philadelphia of forty-five delegates from the thirteen States of the new union and which is known in history as the Federal Convention of 1787.

This Federal Convention of 1787 has been rightly called "one of the most remarkable deliberative bodies known to history." George Washington was its presiding officer. Among its members were such men as Benjamin Franklin, Alexander Hamilton, James Madison, Robert Morris, William Livingston, Rufus King, Roger Sherman and others whose love for liberty was great, whose foresight was clear and whose chief desire was to present to their fellow-citizens a document that should enable them to live together in peace and unity. From the fourteenth of May to the seventeenth of September, 1787, the Convention discussed, debated, modified, amended and resolved. Then the great paper, duly signed, was presented to the people as the best their representatives could do. A year of discussion succeeded; one by one the thirteen States said "all right" — that is, accepted or ratified the document; and on the thirteenth of September, 1788, the Constitution of the United States of America was officially declared to be "the law of the land."

Let us remember these few "personalities" of the Constitution. Alexander Hamilton originated it; Gouveneur Morris planned its construction; James Madison put it into shape; George Washington was its first signer; Benjamin Franklin was its oldest signer, at the age of eighty-one; Nicholas Gilman was its youngest signer, at the age of twenty-five.

By the Constitution the name of the government created "for and by the people" was the "United States of America." It provided for a general government whose authority was to be supreme on all matters of national interest and union; this was to be divided into three departments: the legislative, the executive, the judiciary. The legislative department, called the congress, was to make the laws; the executive department, consisting of the President of the United States and the officers selected by him, was to carry out and

ALEXANDER HAMILTON.

"The father of the Constitution of the United States."

enforce the laws; the judiciary department, or law courts of the United States, was to decide all questions or disputes that might arise concerning the laws. To the Constitution as "the law of the land," the national government, the State governments and the people were to give entire obedience.

The Legislative Department, which was to make the laws, was to consist of two branches, the Senate and the House of Representatives. Each State, no matter how large or how small it might be, was to have two men in the senate, their "Senators;" the members of the House of Representatives were to be chosen by the States according to their population, so that the larger States had, of course, more men in the House of Representatives than the smaller States could have. These two Houses together comprised the Congress of the United States and were to levy taxes, borrow money, coin money, regulate commerce, establish post-offices, declare war, raise and maintain armies and navies, while the States could only levy taxes, borrow money and employ soldiers for their own State uses. A majority of votes in each House of Congress was necessary to pass a law; and treaties made by the President must be approved by the Senate.

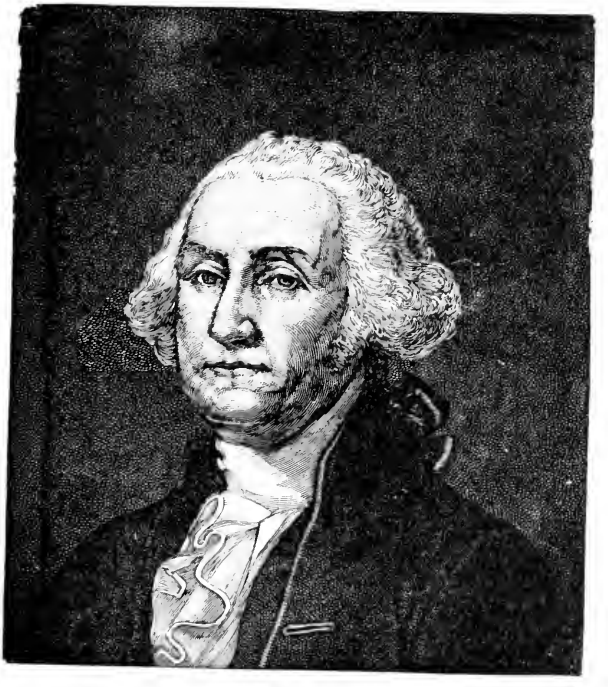
The Executive Department, which was to enforce the laws, was to be in the hands of a President, chosen every four years by representatives of the people known as electors. The president was to be commander-in-chief of the army and navy and to appoint the public officers to whom the details of carrying out the laws of Congress were to be given. If he did wrong he could be accused or "impeached" by the House of Representatives and tried by the Senate and in case of his removal, resignation or death his "substitute" or Vice-President was to take his place. The only other duty of the Vice-President was to preside over the meetings of the Senate.

The Judiciary Department which was to "interpret" the laws was to consist of a supreme court and certain district courts. The

judges were to be appointed by the President and to hold office for life. The "head judge" was to be called the Chief Justice of the United States.

So, by vote of the people of the thirteen United States, the Constitution became the law of the land. But the discussion of its provisions by the people led to a difference of opinion as to its real value, and this discussion resulted in a division into two parties. One of these parties believed that the Constitution could not be bettered and that the new Federal government was exactly the thing needed; this party called itself the Federalists and enthusiastically supported the new constitution. The other party believed that more power should be allowed to the States; they feared that too much power given to Congress might lead to a monarchy or a tyranny of some sort, and they declared that so strong a central power took away from the people the privilege of self-government; this party was called the Anti-Federalists.

But the majority of the people accepted and resolved to live up to the new constitution. Washington and Franklin, to whom the people looked with the greatest respect and confidence, supported it heartily and were among the chiefs of the Federalists. When, however, the office of president was to be filled one man alone was the choice of the people, and when the sixty-nine electors sent in their votes for president the sixty-nine ballots were all for George Washington of Virginia. John Adams of Massachusetts was elected vice-president. The city of New York was selected as the capital of the United States, and on the fourth of March, 1789, on the balcony of Federal Hall (now the site of the Sub-Treasury in Wall Street) in the city of New York, George Washington took the oath to support the Constitution as the supreme law of the land; and amid the shouts and flag-waving and booming of cannon that followed the proclamation of Chancellor Livingstone who had administered the oath: "Long live George Washington, President of the United States!" the man who had led the armies of his land to vic-

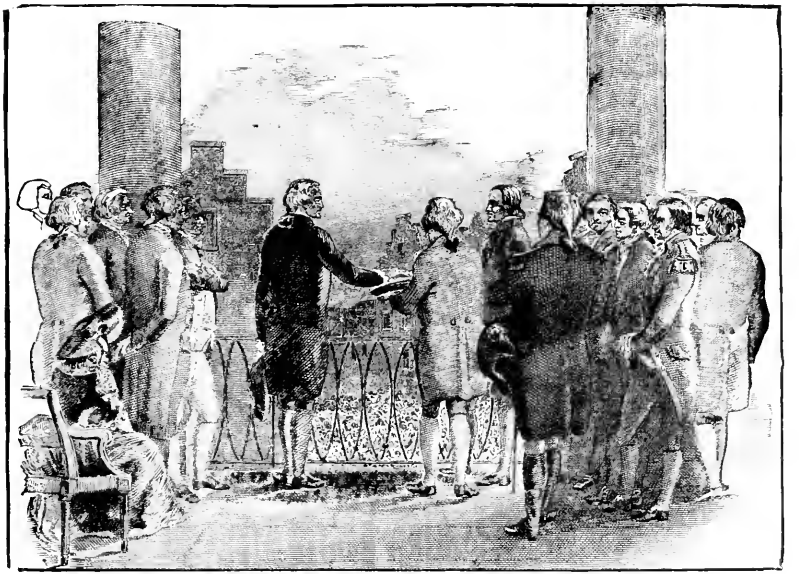


G. Washington

First president of the United States.

tory and guided its wisdom in determining upon its form of government now began his career as the official head of the new nation — the President of the United States.

President Washington selected as his chief advisers and assistants Thomas Jefferson as secretary of state, Alexander Hamilton as



THE INAUGURATION OF PRESIDENT WASHINGTON.

secretary of the treasury, Henry Knox as secretary of war, and Edmund Randolph as attorney-general. These men were to help him in the conduct of affairs that came within his duties as the chief executive officer of the new nation. Congress assembled in the Federal Building, with Vice-President John Adams of Massachu-

setts as the presiding officer or "president" of the Senate, and F. A. Muhlenberg of Pennsylvania as the presiding officer or "Speaker" of the House of Representatives; the "machinery of government" was put in motion and the new nation started out to try the experiment — deemed so doubtful by all the world — of government by the people.

For one hundred and seventy years had the American people been preparing for this very experiment. It had been a long and hard schooling. They had secured their liberty; and now this was what they were going to try to do with it: to govern themselves — or, in the words of the constitution which they had just adopted: "*We, the People of the United States*, in order to form a more perfect Union, establish Justice, insure domestic Tranquility, provide for the common defence, promote the general Welfare, and secure the Blessings of Liberty to ourselves and our Posterity, do ordain and establish this CONSTITUTION for the United States of America."

CHAPTER XV.

"THE AMERICANS."

THE new republic of the United States of America started out in life as a nation in 1789, with a population of nearly four millions (the actual figures of the first census in 1790, were 3,929,214). Of these four millions Virginia claimed the most and led the order of the States as number one with a population of 747,610; Pennsylvania was number two with a population of 434,373; North Carolina number three with a population of 393,751; and, following after, as fourth in order

came Massachusetts with 378,787; New York as fifth with 340,120; Maryland sixth with 319,728; South Carolina seventh with 249,073; Connecticut eighth with 237,496; New Jersey ninth with 184,139; New Hampshire tenth with 141,885; Maine eleventh with 96,540; Vermont twelfth with 85,425; Georgia thirteenth with 82,548; Kentucky fourteenth with 73,677; Rhode Island fifteenth with 68,825; Delaware sixteenth with 59,096 and Tennessee seventeenth with 35,691. Of these, at that time, four were not yet admitted as States: Maine was a part of the State of Massachusetts, Vermont was a part of New York, Kentucky of Virginia and Tennessee of the Carolinas. Already emigrants were crossing the Alleghanies and peopling the Western wilderness as Kentucky, Tennessee and the lands about the Ohio were called. Indeed, during the Revolution, a brave American borderer, named General George Rogers Clarke, had captured from the British the distant outposts in the territory of the Illinois, along the Mississippi River, and had thus established a footing for American frontiersmen and given the United States a claim to the territory north of the Ohio River when the treaty of peace was signed.

GEORGE ROGERS CLARKE.

But nearly all of the four millions of Americans above classified were settled along the Atlantic coast line. The western wilderness had, as yet, too many terrors. The sea was their main highway; the sailing-packets their principal means of travel. Lumbering stages did, indeed, run between the leading cities, but it took quite as many days by land as by water, for roads were bad, bridges few and ferries clumsy and dangerous.

Philadelphia was the chief town of the United States. It had in 1790, a population of 42,520, while New York had but 33,131, Boston but 18,038 and there was no Chicago at all! Trade with the interior was by six-horse wagons, by pack-horse or flat-boat; what

little mails there were could be carried by the post-riders; newspapers were few and dull; schools were poor in instruction and cruel in discipline; tallow candles, grease "dips" or pitch pine were the only lights; wood was the only fuel; coal and stoves were unknown; farming was rough and far from thorough and fully one seventh of the four million Americans were negro slaves.

The buying and selling of black people for use in the farm labor and housework of America dated from the days of the Spanish *conquistadores* who, as early as 1508, when they found that the conquered Indians could not stand the killing work forced upon them by their cruel task-masters, brought into the Spanish Main negroes from Africa to take their places. In 1619 a Dutch captain ventured with a cargo of nineteen African slaves to Virginia; and from their sale to the planters along the James River dates the two hundred and fifty years of negro slavery in North America. At the close of the Revolution slavery existed in all the States, though Massachusetts had already declared it illegal. It was not, however, suited to the peculiar climate of the Northern commonwealths whose methods of farming were widely different from those employed in the rice and tobacco plantations of the South. So it came about that nearly seven eighths of all the slaves in the United States were in Maryland, Virginia and North and South Carolina which were also, as we have seen, the richest and most populous of the thirteen States. New York owned the largest number of any Northern State —fully twenty thousand. But, even then, clear-headed and right-minded men saw the evil of slavery and warned their countrymen of the risks of continuing it. The founders of the government—

BORROWING FIRE IN OLD DAYS.

Washington and Franklin, Jefferson, Madison, Jay and Hamilton —opposed the degrading system as unsuited to a land of liberty, and earnestly desired its abolition. But in 1793 a Connecticut man who was teaching school in Georgia, Eli Whitney by name, invented a machine for cleaning cotton. This was called the cotton-gin. With it a slave who, before that time, could not clean over five pounds of cotton a day, could easily clean a thousand pounds a day. At once the cultivation of cotton became the chief industry of the South; the value of slave labor was greatly increased; the warnings of the fathers of the republic were disregarded and the fight for the keeping up and extension of the hateful system continued for nearly seventy years.

"KING COTTON."

With only sailing vessels or horses as means of communication between the different sections, travel was not very general and visiting was not greatly indulged in. Neighborhoods kept to themselves, for when it took six days to go from Boston to New York and three from New York to Philadelphia the roads were never crowded. President Washington rode in his private coach all the way from Mount Vernon to New York to be inaugurated, and the journey occupied

seven days, so filled was it with receptions, greetings, processions and enthusiasm.

The adoption of the Constitution and the inauguration of the new government made men and women intensely American. They

THE STAGE COACH.

remembered that in the early days of opposition to Great Britain they had been able to do without the manufactures of the mother country and they saw no reason why they should not now depend upon American productions, and develop home resources.

So, all over the land the people combined to use as far as possible American materials only. Rich and poor alike wore plain clothes of strong home stuff; the ladies met in "spinning-bees" where each one tried to out-do the other in the work accomplished; "American broadcloth" became the fashion; and both President Washington and Vice-President Adams took the oath of office dressed from head to foot in home-spun garments "whose material was the product of American soil."

The Revolution, however, had not altogether destroyed that very objectionable feeling of "I am better than you," that royalty and aristocracy are responsible for and that is so hard for people to get rid of. The Declaration of Independence had told the world that "all men are created free and equal," but for many people, even in free America, it was hard to admit the equality. So, in the little cities and in the neighborhood centers of the United States there existed for years that unwise feeling of superiority that we call aristocracy, due to the wealth or position of certain favored families. Even when Washington was to be inaugurated the Congress was perplexed what title to give him. Some, with the remembrance of the old titles of royalty still in mind wished to address him as "High Mightiness;" some wished to speak of him as "His Highness the President of the United States of America and Protector of their Liberty;" "Your Grace" and "His Excellency," were both proposed; but good common sense won the day and it was resolved that the address should be simply "the President of the United States." And "To the President" or "By the President" have been the address and signature pertaining to the office to this day.

MARTHA WASHINGTON, WIFE OF THE PRESIDENT.

But though aristocratic and high-flown manners and feelings found place in certain sections, and though the dear and noble-

minded wife of the President was ridiculously styled by many "Lady Washington," while men and women aped the display and costume and fashionable follies of the rotten old courts and kingdoms across the sea, the great mass of the Americans were plain, sensible, hard-working men and women, who laughed at all such pretended "style" and farmed and fished and bought and sold in the proud knowledge that all men were equal before the law as well as in the sight of the good God who had created them.

More and more, as population increased, the young men of the homes by the sea went west to seek their fortune and to occupy new lands in the far-off Indian country, where for years the forests and valleys of Kentucky and Tennessee and the Ohio region had been first the hunting ground and then the homes of hardy frontiersmen and hopeful settlers. The Indians who had hunted and fought in this fertile section for generations, fiercely resisted the coming of the white man; but it was to no purpose. In spite of arrow and tomahawk and scalping-knife such mighty hunters as Daniel Boone cleared the pathway in what was called "the dark and bloody ground," for settlement and civilization; population increased; and, in 1792, Kentucky was admitted into the union of States, while Tennessee followed in 1796. To the northeast Vermont, which after years of dispute as to whether it belonged to New Hampshire or New York had set up for itself during the Revolution, was in 1791 admitted into the Union as the fourteenth State.

By the treaty of Paris, which established peace between the United States and Great Britain after the Revolutionary War, the boundaries of the United States were acknowledged to be Canada on the north, the Mississippi River on the west, and Florida (extending in a narrow strip to the Mississippi) on the south. The

THE NEW HOME IN THE OHIO COUNTRY.

"*It was fertile, fair and every way attractive.*"

vast territory extending from the Ohio River to the Great Lakes was called the Northwest Territory and into this section settlers speedily found their way. It was fertile, fair and every way attractive, and promised a better outlook for pleasant homes and productive farming than did the rocky shores and sterile hill-slopes of New England. As colonists, the people of America had experienced such bitter days with England that when their own people went west to settle in the new lands beyond the Ohio they dealt with them justly and kindly, and the "Ordinance of 1787" which provided for the government of the Northwest Territory was one of the broadest and most generous agreements known to history. Daniel Webster said of it: "We are accustomed to praise the lawgivers of antiquity; we help to perpetuate the fame of Solon and Lycurgus; but I doubt whether one single law of any lawgiver, ancient or modern, has produced effects of more distinct, marked and lasting character than the ordinance of 1787." By this "ordinance" slavery was forbidden; the inhabitants were assured religious freedom, trial by jury and equal rights; common schools were to be supported and, as soon as the population was large enough, five new States were to be formed from the territory admitted to the Union and were to be governed by the people themselves. This ordinance and this territory developed in time into the great and prosperous States of Ohio, Indiana, Illinois, Michigan and Wisconsin.

So, with the new life and the mighty inspiration that liberty and the privilege of self-government brought, the new American republic started toward progress. All was not smooth at first. There were disputes between sections and jealousies between law-makers; there were struggles for place and power; there were protests against what some deemed the "tyranny of the majority;" the debts incurred by the years of war were heavy and needed to be met by that very taxation that so many Americans had learned to detest and, from this last cause, two "rebellions" sprung — Shay's insurrection in Massachusetts in 1786, and the whiskey insurrection

in Pennsylvania in 1794, both of which needed to be put down by force of arms. The exciting days of the French Revolution in 1789, when, profiting by the example of America, the French people threw off the yoke of the kings (in a much more bloody and brutal fashion, however, than it was done in America), very nearly dragged the American republic into war; but Washington's firm hand on the helm guided the ship of state safely through the troubled waters of a dangerous sympathy. The wars on the frontier into which the settlement of the Ohio country provoked the Indians, begun, in 1790, in defeat under General St. Clair, ended, in 1794, in victory under General Wayne. These secured from the red owners the rights to possession forever in the present State of Ohio. Further rights in the Northwest, and the settlement of disputed questions as to who had the "say" on the northern border, were secured by a new treaty with England, concluded by John Jay in 1795.

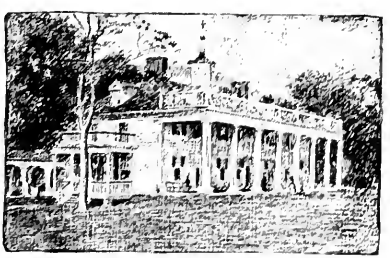
In spite, however, of debt and jealousies and questions of rights and privileges, in spite of angry uprisings, misunderstandings and rumors of war, the new nation speedily began to prosper and under the two terms which George Washington served as president, bore itself with dignity and showed the world its ability to live in good order and to maintain a successful government. Europe still looked on doubtfully, pointing to the terrible times in France as one of the first fruits of American independence and prophesying similar anarchy and final downfall for America. But, unmoved by this, the United States held on the course resolved upon; commerce increased; the money of the United States, first coined in 1793, was placed in circulation; enterprising sea-captains displayed the American flag in foreign waters, and in 1790 carried it around the world on the good ship Columbia of Boston; turn-pike roads were built; canals were dug; colleges were founded. Thus American enterprise was born; and, as the stormy seventeenth century drew to its close, the United States of America began to challenge the attention and admiration of the world.

CHAPTER XVI.

UNSETTLED DAYS.

IN 1796 George Washington declined to serve as president for a third term of four years. Issuing a remarkable "Farewell Address to the American People," he retired to private life and settled down to enjoy the rest he had earned after forty-five years of public service. The home in which he lived and died, at Mount Vernon on the Potomac River, has continued to this day an honored place of pilgrimage for all Americans.

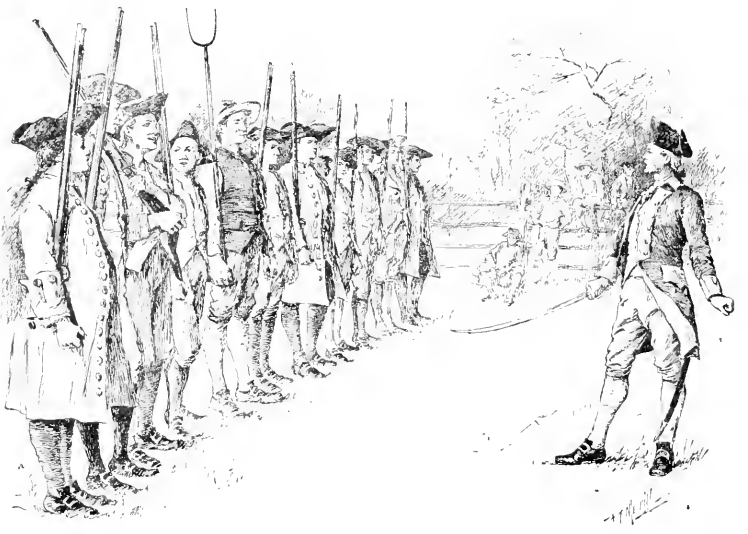
Upon the retirement of Washington people realized that some other man must be found to serve as president and they at once began to say what they wanted done and who they wished to do it. Discussion ran hot and high; the Federalists took as their candidate for president, Washington's vice-president, John Adams of Massachusetts; the anti-Federalists supported Washington's first Secretary of State, Thomas Jefferson of Virginia. Adams was elected and, under the law as it then existed, Jefferson, the defeated candidate for president, became vice-president.



WASHINGTON'S HOME AT MOUNT VERNON

Even before this was concluded the country was plunged into disputes with France. Washington had kept America from making promises to France, and the revolutionists then in power in that

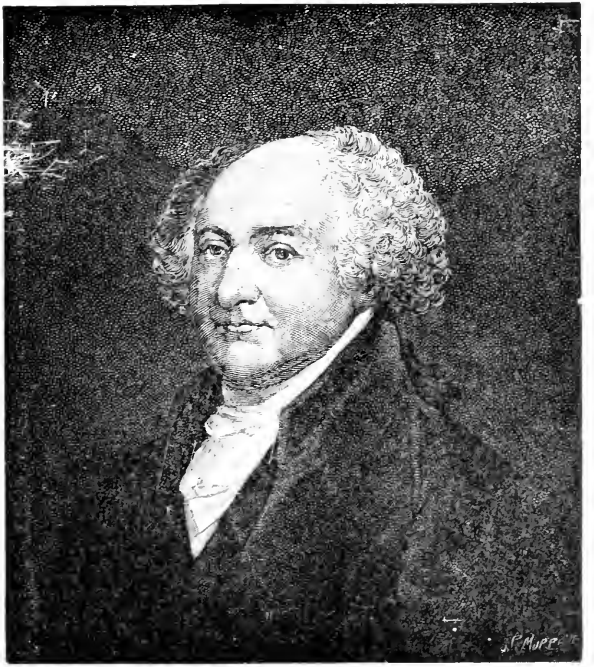
disturbed land declared that, if the United States desired peace with France, peace must be paid for. So they set to work to annoy their old ally. The American minister was driven from the country; American commerce was damaged by unjust laws; American ships and cargoes were preyed upon; and American envoys, when sent across the sea to protest, were told they must pay or suffer. But Americans had proved that they were able to defy injustice. "Millions for defense, but not one cent for tribute," was the



TRAINING RECRUITS FOR WAR WITH FRANCE.

famous answer they made in reply to the French demands, and at once they prepared for war.

Washington came from his quiet home at Mount Vernon to once



JOHN ADAMS.

Second president of the United States.

again take his place at the head of the army; the black cockade, worn as the symbol of patriotism, was seen in every hat; old Continental uniforms that had seen service in the Revolution were hunted out of chest and closet; and, on many a village common, the raw recruits, in all sorts of funny costumes, drilled and marched and "trained" with all the fervor and enthusiasm of the old fight-

ing days of "twenty years ago." The navy was increased, and several sea-fights had taken place — notably one off the Island of St. Kitt's where Commodore Truxton in the war-ship Constellation fought and captured the French frigate L'Insurgente; the song "Hail, Columbia!" was upon every one's lips and then, even before war had been declared, Napoleon Bonaparte, who had put himself at the head of French affairs, made peace with the United States in 1799, and the war cloud passed over.

Whenever there is danger of war people become greatly excited and sometimes do very foolish things. And so it happened that, when war with France seemed probable, the law-makers assembled in Congress, of whom the majority belonged to the Federalist party, passed certain laws that proved to be both stupid and hurtful to the best interests of the country. They feared "foreign influence" and they wished to show the world the "power" of the United States; so they made a law by which the president could arrest and exile any foreigner or "alien" who was thought to be dangerous. This was called the "Alien Law." Another measure punished any person who dared say a word in public against the government; this was called the "Sedition Law." At once the opponents of the Federalists who called themselves Republicans cried out "For shame!" The Alien Law, they said, took away the right to a trial by jury; the Sedition Law was a blow at free speech. The American people had learned to value these rights for which they had fought too highly to permit them to be abused. Popular opinion sided with the Republicans, and at the Presidential election of 1800, amid great excitement, President John Adams and the Federalists were defeated.

But the success of the Republican ticket gave Thomas Jefferson and Aaron Burr an equal number of votes. The Constitution declared that the person receiving the highest number of votes should be president, and the one receiving the next highest number should be vice-president. So here was a problem: which should be

the president, Jefferson or Burr? The decision was referred to the House of Representatives and, there also, it resulted in a "tie-vote." There was a great deal of delay and much angry talk, but finally the struggle came to an end and Jefferson was chosen president with Burr as vice-president.

But this showed one weak spot in the Constitution; it would not do to have such a struggle repeated and the Constitution was changed or "amended," so far as to direct the presidential electors to vote for but one man for president and to make a separate ballot for the vice-president. And this method has continued to this day.

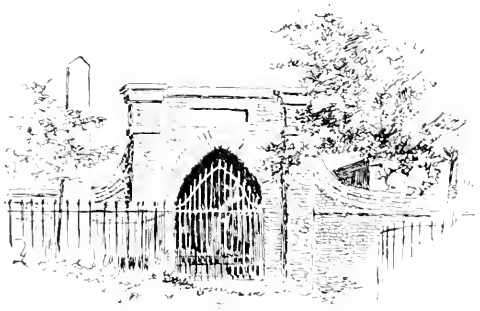
THOMAS JEFFERSON.
Third president of the United States.

In December, 1799, George Washington died. The news came like a shock to the whole country; the world mourned a great man gone; England lowered her flag to half-mast; France draped in black her standards and her flags and America, from north to south, sorrowed for the loss of her greatest and wisest man. Firm, prudent, sagacious, just, courageous, patient, true and good, this illustrious man is now revered by all Americans as truly the "father of his country"; his birthday is a national festival; his memory is dear to all, and now, almost a century after his death, there is not an American but repeats with deepest faith the eulogy pronounced upon George Washington by John Marshall when making before the Congress public announcement of this good man's death: "First in war first in peace, and first in the hearts of his countrymen."

Washington's greatest monument is the memory of his spotless name; but as a noble monument, also, may be regarded "the Federal City," which, selected by him, was built upon land given to the general government by the States of Maryland and Virginia, and set apart as the District of Columbia. After his death the new city received the name of Washington and was made the capital of the United States.

In 1800 the government was removed there; President Jefferson was there inaugurated; and to-day the straggling forest settlement of 1800 has developed into one of the most beautiful of cities, one of the most imposing of capitals.

Thomas Jefferson, as has been said, was the greatest of Democrats. The success of his party was the success of new men and new manners. The old colonial ideas that birth and blood were meant to lead were done away with, even as the wigs and cues, the short clothes and buckles, the frills and patches and powder of the eighteenth century gave place to modern manners and a less theatrical dress. The nineteenth century meant progress and, even from its earliest years, progress was the order of the day. Profiting by the wars by which Europe was almost torn asunder, America's commerce grew to great proportions; her debts were speedily settled, her ships were seen in every quarter of the globe, and her territory was very largely increased.



WASHINGTON'S TOMB AT MOUNT VERNON.

In 1803 Napoleon seeing that the American possessions of France

THE SALE OF LOUISIANA.

"Napoleon sold the vast territory for fifteen millions of dollars."

would be in danger from the hostile arms of England, sold to the United States for fifteen millions of dollars, the vast territory lying between the Mississippi River and the Rocky Mountains and known as Louisiana. This more than doubled the possessions of the United States, and from this land purchase of 1803 have since been made the States of Louisiana, Arkansas, Missouri, Iowa, Kansas, Nebraska, North and South Dakota, Montana and the Indian Territory. It also included goodly portions of the present States of Minnesota, Colorado and Wyoming.

The new republic was fast growing into a successful and ambitious young giant, but, like many ambitious young men, it boasted and assumed too much and frequently got into trouble. Fired by the success of the Louisiana purchase in 1803, it stretched out toward the Pacific and, by virtue of an exploring expedition conducted into the far northwestern region by Lewis and Clarke in 1804, it laid claim to what was known as the Oregon country — a claim that was disputed by England for nearly forty years.

In 1800 the population of the United States had increased to 5,308,483; in 1810 it had grown to 7,239,881. Discovery and invention, though weak and unsatisfactory, were just beginning to open people's eyes, and were giving a new push to American enterprise. Robert Fulton invented the steamboat in 1807, and by his success made the great rivers of the United States more valuable than ever before as highways for commerce. Coal was discovered in Pennsylvania, but no one knew just how to use it to advantage. Dissatisfied people were beginning to find fault with their circumstances and their surroundings, and no less a personage than the vice-president of the United States, Aaron Burr, smarting under what he considered ill-treatment by the Government and having wickedly killed Alexander Hamilton in a duel, hatched up a treasonable scheme to found a government of his own in the new western country, but was arrested, tried, acquitted, disgraced and forgotten. The people of the United States might be uneasy and ambitious, but

they were loyal to the government they had set up, and such schemes of treason as was this of Burr found neither favor nor support among them.

But in Europe things were becoming worse and worse, as Napoleon Bonaparte, declaring himself emperor of France, found himself at war with the world. France with the most powerful army in the world, and England with the most formidable navy, made things decidedly unpleasant for each other and the rest of the world. England declared a blockade of all European ports against France — that is, refused to allow the vessels of any nation to enter the harbors of France or her allies; France retaliated by forbidding all vessels to sail into English harbors. As American ships at that time did most of the carrying trade these decrees of France and England most deeply affected American commerce. Congress would, had it dared, have gone to war to redress this outrage; it had in 1801 declared war against the Mohammedan pirates of the Barbary states in North Africa, and had punished them severely in what has been known as the War with Tripoli; but to fight Tripoli and to fight Great Britain were quite different affairs and the United States could not hope to beat Great Britain on the seas. So, instead, Congress tried to punish both the great powers by refusing to trade with them and passed in 1807 a measure known as the "Embargo Act," which forbade the sailing of American vessels to any foreign port. But this was almost suicide. American ships lay rotting at their docks; American commerce was very nearly destroyed; New York and New England protested loudly and some particularly unpatriotic people

THE FALLING FLAG.
War with Tripoli.

in the Eastern States, when they saw their business ruined and their commerce dead began to talk, very forcibly, of "seceding" from the Union.

The Embargo Act proved so unpopular and hurtful that Congress soon repealed it and in 1809 passed, in its place, what was known as the "Non-Intercourse Act." This permitted American vessels to trade with all countries except France and England. But it was too late to save the lost popularity of President Jefferson. He had served two terms as president, but the Embargo Act was the means of defeating his renomination and his party (which was now often called the Democratic party) was obliged in 1808 to take another man as candidate. This was James Madison of Virginia, who had been a member of the historic Continental Congress and had served as Secretary of State under Jefferson.

JAMES MADISON.
Fourth president of the United States.

The Non-Intercourse Act was repealed in 1810 and the new administration of President Madison found itself face to face with a problem that must be solved at once if prosperity was to be regained for those sections of the country which had been the principal sufferers

under the unfortunate Embargo Act. The old tyrants across the sea were bent on "crowding" the new nation beyond the limit of patience. The "young giant" must prepare to stand his ground and either fight or fall.

CHAPTER XVII.

A WRESTLE WITH THE OLD FOE.

IT is very hard to forget. When you have been wronged or worried by any of your companions you may learn to forgive them, but the memory of the wrong that has been done you lasts a long time.

It was so with the United States and England. The bitterness of the strife that brought on the Revolution, the ill-feeling that accompanied those seven years of war continued as unpleasant memories long after the treaty of peace was signed. And the boasting about success assumed by Americans was as distasteful to Englishmen as was English contempt of America exasperating to Americans.

When in 1809 the "Non-Intercourse Act" was repealed the Congress of the United States said to France and Great Britain: "If one of you will recall the laws you have made that are so hard on American commerce, we will trade with you only and will 'boycott' the other nation." To which Napoleon at once responded. "All right; I will." He didn't, but he said he would, and on the strength of his false promise the United States at once cut off its trade with England, and began to boast about it, too. For, you see, the old hatred still lived.

Great Britain, confident of her strength upon the seas, treated America with more contempt than ever. She claimed the right to search American ships and take out any sailors that might seem to be of English or Irish birth. Of course the British searchers were not over-scrupulous and many American citizens were seized as British sailors, and forced to serve in English war-ships. British men-of-war sailed up and down the American coast, attacking and capturing American merchant vessels, while, in the West, agents of the British government stirred up the Indians to hostility against American settlers, furnished them arms and ammunition, and backing up the Indian leader Tecumseh, chief of the Shawnees, brought about at last in 1811 an Indian war. This war was, however, speedily ended by General William Henry Harrison, the governor of Indiana Territory, who, marching against Tecumseh, utterly defeated the Indians at the famous battle of Tippecanoe.

TECUMSEH, CHIEF OF THE SHAWNEES.

All these signs of English hostility and hatred had their effect at last upon America. Instead of calmly talking things over and trying to arrange the difficulty America "got mad" with England. All talk of peace ceased. Patience was exhausted, self-respect could not longer submit, the old "spirit of '76" was renewed, and though New England objected to the war as unwise and wrong, popular opinion forced

Congress into action and on the eighteenth of June, 1812, President Madison formally declared war against Great Britain.

The country was altogether unprepared for such a conflict. England had a thousand war-ships; the United States had but

THE BATTLE OF TIPPECANOE.

twelve; England's army was a victorious force of disciplined soldiers; America had no army; the country was poor; the president had been forced into war contrary to his own judgment; the generals in command of the raw and undisciplined soldiers were veterans "left over" from the Revolution, too old to be of real service and Great

Britain felt that it would be but an easy task to whip the young nation that thirty years before had caused her so much shame.

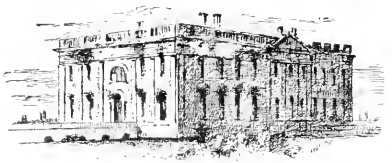
From first to last the land battles of the War of 1812 were a series of defeats, brightened by only a few victories. The soldiers had no confidence in their generals, until generals had really been made by the bitter experience of defeat. For the most part it was a "leaderless war." The names of Winfield Scott and Andrew Jackson, with perhaps that of William Henry Harrison, are almost the only ones that come down to us as those of successful leaders.

The war was mismanaged from the start. Many of the people were opposed to it; the Government was absolutely incapable of directing it; the troops lacked discipline; the generals knew nothing of how to handle or how to lead their men; the Canadian frontier, then almost a wilderness, was foolishly crossed and recrossed for the impossible invasion of Canada; posts that should have been held at all hazards were surrendered or abandoned, and important centers that should have been defended were left at the mercy of the enemy. Thus was Detroit on the northwestern border surrendered by General Hull and all the territory beyond the Ohio country lost to the Americans; the territory of Maine was seized and held by the British; and in August, 1814, five thousand British soldiers marched through Virginia and Maryland, drove the militia before them again and again, entered Washington from which the inefficient government had fled, burned the Capitol, the White House (as the home of the president was called) and most of the public buildings, and then sailed to attack the city of Baltimore. With the exception of such engagements as the Battle of the Thames and of Chippewa Plains and the wonderful victory at New Orleans — a needless battle fought after peace had been agreed upon — the history of the land

battles of the War of 1812 is, as Mr. Roosevelt says, "not cheerful reading for an American."

One result, however, these unsuccessful battles had. Even out of defeat they brought discipline. They made fighters out of the raw recruits, and, as one historian tells us, "two years of warfare gave us soldiers who could stand against the best men of Britain."

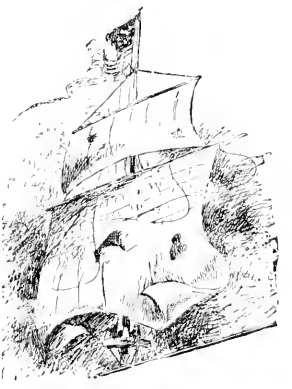
But it was a schooling dearly bought. The grapple on land with which the old foemen again tried their strength was dreary and disheartening enough in its results to the Americans; dissatisfaction at the conduct of the war became so strong in certain sections that the opponents of the government met in convention at Hartford in 1814, and threatened to set up a separate government for New England which, so it was claimed, the government had left to take care of itself; the treasury was bankrupt; the leaders were incompetent; and, after the burning of Washington, the situation appeared so desperate that the English lookers-on exultantly declared that "the ill-organized association is on the eve of dissolution and the world is speedily to be delivered of the mischievous example of the existence of a government founded on democratic rebellion."



THE RUINED WHITE HOUSE.

But all this while the unexpected was happening. The American navy from which nothing had been anticipated, and which, at the opening of the war, it was proposed to keep in port to save it from destruction by the formidable British fleets of war, took up the challenge that England had so contemptuously flung at America, sailed boldly out against the stoutest and most invincible British war-ships, swelled its force by swift-sailing privateers, and showed so much pluck and courage that it succeeded in doing more damage to British shipping and commerce than any nation had ever accomplished. Out of eighteen lake and ocean duels the American men-

of-war won fifteen. The deeds of Hull and Macdonough, of Lawrence and Perry, of Decatur and Biddle and Bainbridge, of Warrington, Stewart and Porter, of Jones and Burrows and Reid — American captains all — very nearly cause us to forget the defeats and discouragements of the war on land and make us agree with Mr. Roosevelt when he says "it must be but a poor-spirited American whose veins do not tingle with pride when he reads of the cruises and fights of the sea-captains and their grim prowess, which kept the old Yankee flag floating over the waters of the Atlantic for three years, in the teeth of the mightiest naval power the world has ever seen."



KEEPING THE OLD FLAG AFLOAT.

Most wars are like boyish quarrels — altogether unnecessary and easily to be avoided if but the quarrelers will soften their hearts instead of doubling up their fists. But when bullying or stupidity bring on either a quarrel or a war then resistance is right and valor is manliness. "Beware," says Shakespeare,

> "Of entrance to a quarrel; but, being in,
> Bear it that the opposèd may beware of thee."

The War of 1812 was an unnecessary quarrel. Had England been less insolent and America better guided, the war could easily have been avoided; or had there entered into the early dispute the more friendly spirit of what we to-day call "arbitration" no shot from fort or ship need have been fired. But the war did come; and, as we look back upon it, we are proud to know that American pluck and bravery carried the struggle through, despite poor leadership on the land and heavier force on the water. "Don't give up the ship," cried the brave Captain Lawrence as he fell on the blood-

stained deck of the Chesapeake. That appeal was the battle cry throughout the war; with it nailed to the mast of Commodore Perry's flag-ship in the famous Battle of Lake Erie, the blue jackets stuck to its commands so well that Perry broke the British line, captured the whole fleet, and sent off his famous announcement of victory: "We have met the enemy, and they are ours."

The war began with the disgraceful surrender of Detroit; it closed with the marvelous victory at New Orleans. There, on the eighth of January, 1815, Sir Edward Pakenham with twelve thousand British regulars — men who had met and conquered the veteran troops of Napoleon — assaulted the hastily constructed earthworks behind which General Jackson with six thousand undisciplined soldiers awaited the attack. Within half an hour the whole British army was in full retreat, beaten back by Jackson's stubborn resistance. Pakenham and more than twenty-five hundred of his men were killed; the Americans lost but eight killed and thirteen wounded. "Few victories in history," says Mr. Johnson, "have been so complete; and this one enabled the United States to forget many of the early failures."

It was a victory of leadership. The war at last had developed one great general — Andrew Jackson of Tennessee who, says Mr. Roosevelt, "with his cool head and quick eye, his stout heart and strong hand, stands out in history as the ablest general the United States produced from the outbreak of the Revolution down to the beginning of the great Rebellion."

Had there been known such a thing as an ocean telegraph this battle need not have been fought, for a treaty of peace had been signed at Ghent in Belgium on the twenty-fourth of December, 1814. Peace was joyfully welcomed. It was greatly needed. Business was at a standstill; commerce was nearly destroyed; money was scarce, and distress and poverty were felt in every section. The war had cost the country nearly eighty millions of dollars, and people were weary of the struggle.

But it had settled several things which, though not mentioned in the treaty of peace, were most important to America. The victory of General Harrison at the River Thames, closed the long struggle for possession in the west, for there the frontiersmen of the Ohio

JACKSON'S SHARPSHOOTERS AT NEW ORLEANS.

broke down the barrier to settlement that Indians, Frenchmen and Britishers had sought to maintain, and settled it forever that the west was to be American. The long series of ocean victories proved the power of America on the sea, and never again did Great Britain

attempt to enforce that insolent "right of search" that had been one of the causes of the Revolution, and brought on the War of 1812.

In spite of the dissatisfaction at the course of the government and its weakness in the hour of danger the Democratic-Republican party, while the war was being waged, was strong enough to re-elect Madison as president in 1813. In fact the old Federalist party that had started the government in 1789, came to an end during the war-time. The younger men of the country who hotly supported the war with England, had no patience with a party that opposed it; the Hartford Convention of 1814 that talked so foolishly of separation from the Union, was largely the work of Federalists and was their last act. For peace and the American victories showed the real strength of the United States, and its citizens had no use for a party that seemed to be only the party of submission and grumbling. The Hartford Convention and Jackson's victory gave the death blow to the Federalist party, and with the close of the war but one remained — and to this day this has been known as the Democratic Party.

AMBUSHED IN THE INDIAN COUNTRY.

CHAPTER XVIII.

STATE-MAKING.

THE first suit of clothes is speedily outgrown. Legs lengthen; arms stretch out; and tucks must either be let down, pieces added or new suits cut and made if the growing girl or boy is to be considered as properly clothed. They must have more growing room.

The first suit of the United States made of thirteen well-matched pieces, was speedily outgrown. Even before the Revolution the first feelers had been stretched out toward the distant west, and when peace was declared, such statesmen as Thomas Jefferson began to cut and carve the western territory obtained from England, so as to make at least seventeen States. Mr. Jefferson had even selected names for his new States that were to spring up in prairie-land. They were a combination of Latin, Greek and American-Indian names, and odd enough they sound to us. Here are ten of them as they were proposed to Congress: Sylvania, Cherronesus, Michigania, Assenisipi, Metropotamia, Illinoia, Saratoga, Washington, Polypotamia, and Pelisipia. But neither the divisions nor the names of the suggested new States found favor with the Congress; while the code of laws that was proposed for their government was also rejected, though it contained two provisions that were indicative of the principles of so strong a Democrat as Jefferson: one was the abolition of slavery after 1800; the other, that no one holding an hereditary title should be admitted to citizenship.

We have already seen that soon after the Revolution three new States were added to the original thirteen, namely: Vermont in 1791, Kentucky in 1792 and Tennessee in 1796. These were the

result of a settlement of the disputes as to boundaries and ownership of land between New Hampshire and New York, Massachusetts, Connecticut, Virginia and the two Carolinas. These once adjusted, and the new States formed, the settlers who, after the Revolution, with well-loaded pack-horse and clumsy Conastoga wagon, with wives and children, cattle and scanty household goods and farming implements, had migrated by thousands into the farther west, soon de-

THE CONASTOGA WAGON.

sired citizenship. The opening up of the Ohio country in 1787, the purchase of the vast territory of Louisiana from France in 1803, and Spain's sale of its territory of Florida in 1819 added an immense amount of unsettled land to the United States possessions, and emigrants from Europe or restless residents of the eastern States were constantly on the move west. In 1815 General Jackson in a series of rapid fights defeated the restless Creek Indians in Alabama and opened the southwest to American occupation, and the use of steam-

THE MAIL BOAT ON THE OHIO.

"*Before the days of railroads and steamboats.*"

boats for navigation and trade on the Mississippi and other western rivers hastened the growth of western settlement. For Fulton's invention of the steamboat had — after the first doubts were over — been quickly made use of by progressive Americans. Before 1812 steamboats were running on the Hudson, the Ohio, the St. Lawrence, Raritan and Delaware rivers; steam ferry-boats crossed and recrossed the East River, between New York and Brooklyn; and in 1816 a steamboat ploughed its way up the Mississippi and into the Ohio to Louisville.

The settlers of the west found an easier land to prepare and cultivate than did their ancestors of two centuries before, but they had frequent and desperate hostilities with the former Indian owners of the land (who never could understand that to sell or give a piece of land deprived them of all rights to such land) and the question of slavery in the new sections was already causing much questioning and dispute.

The successful close of the War of 1812 brought many new people across the sea to settle in and become citizens of the growing Western Republic. The west began to fill up; in the northwestern and southwestern territories population gradually centered about certain available points and, out of the territories, a number of States were formed. Ohio had been admitted to the Union in 1802 and Louisiana in 1812. After the war, others followed. Indiana was admitted in 1816, Mississippi in 1817, Illinois in 1818 and Alabama in 1819; Maine (outgrowing the care of Massachusetts of which it had been a part for fully two hundred years) came in as a new State in 1820, and Missouri was admitted in 1821.

So you see that by the year 1820 all the territory east of the Mississippi River, except that wild northern lake region now occupied by Michigan and Wisconsin, had been cut up into States. They had been admitted also alternately — first a northern and then a southern one, for the question of slavery was from the first a puzzling one to settle. Really the United States of America held by

the teachings of the Declaration of Independence and did not believe in slavery. In 1808 the bringing in — or importation — of negro slaves was forbidden by the United States government; before 1820 the keeping of slaves had almost entirely disappeared in all the States north of Virginia; by the ordinance of 1787 slavery was forbidden north of the Ohio River. But slave labor was considered a necessity in the South; the planters of the vast fields of cotton, tobacco and rice, thought they could not get along unless they had unpaid labor on their great plantations; and so, though disliked by many, slavery at length became what is known as "an institution" throughout the South. The question of slavery therefore, gradually grew in importance and became a national matter. Congress tried to suit both sections by keeping the balance even and adding a new State first to the North and then to the South — first a free State and then a slave State. But when Missouri came knocking at the door of the Union asking admission the question as to how it should come in caused a hot discussion. The section had belonged to the old French territory of Louisiana, a slave-holding land; the ordinance of 1787 which prohibited slavery north of the Ohio did not affect it, because the Ohio did not touch it. But the people of the north argued that if Missouri came in as a slave State it would open all the territory west of the Mississippi to slaveholders; the people of the South said

AN OLD-TIME LOUISIANA SUGAR MILL.

that the Constitution left the slavery question to the States; that Missouri was a slave section and that Congress had nothing to say in the matter. So the question grew into a hot and bitter dispute that at one time even threatened to break up the Union; but at last each side "gave in" a little; a line was drawn at the southern boundary of Missouri; it was agreed that Missouri should be admitted into the Union as a slave State, but that slavery should be forever prohibited north of that line — the land occupied by the new State of Missouri only excepted. This famous agreement was known as "the Missouri Compromise," and, under it, Missouri was admitted into the Union in 1821 as the twenty-fourth State.

This season of State-making had almost doubled the original "old thirteen;" it had trebled the population. There were in 1821 fully ten millions of people in the United States as against the three millions that brought the land out of successful revolution in 1783. With the exception of the slavery dispute there was but little to disturb the peace and prosperity of the land. With the close of the War of 1812, business grew brisk again and commerce began to revive. The farmers readily "moved" their crops; money became more plentiful and people speedily forgot the worries of the war-days and remembered only the glories.

In 1816 President Madison was succeeded by James Monroe, of Virginia, the nominee of the Republican party. The successful ending of the war with Great Britain had destroyed the last remnant of the old Federalist party which had opposed and hindered the carrying on of the war. In the election of 1816 the Federalist candidates received but thirty-four of the two hundred and twenty-one electoral votes; and in 1820 so satisfied were the people with President Monroe and his way of "running things," so contented were they with the condition of the country, the prospects of business and the steady progress of national growth and wealth that this period of American history is often called "the Era of

Good Feeling." Monroe was re-elected president in 1820 almost without a dissenting voice. In fact no opposing candidate was nominated and when the electoral votes were cast only one was given against Monroe, this being thrown so that no president save Washington might ever be said to have received the unanimous vote.

JAMES MONROE.
Fifth president of the United States.

One of the measures that came out of this "Era of Good Feeling," where every one was proud to be an American and was anxious to see all America republican was the statement of what has since been known as "the Monroe Doctrine." The Spanish colonies in Central and South America, imitating the United States, had thrown off the Spanish yoke and secured their independence. But it was feared that some of the other monarchies of Europe would either help Spain to conquer her revolted colonies or step in themselves and possess the land. Americans could not submit to such an interference; and, in 1823, President Monroe in the message to Congress which each president makes once a year, declared that, while the United States had no intention of interfering in any European quarrel

or war, due notice was given that no more European colonies should be planted in America, and that the United States would not permit "an attempt by any nation of Europe to reduce an independent nation of North or South America to the condition of a colony." It is said that this outspoken language (which has ever since been the firm stand of the United States) was placed in the president's message by John Quincy Adams, President Monroe's Secretary of State and the next succeeding president of the United States.

President James Monroe was the fifth president of the United States and the fourth Virginian to fill that high office. A soldier of the Revolution and a member of the Continental Congress, he was the last of the men of the Revolution to be elected president. He was the third president to die on the Fourth of July. Two of those who preceded him, John Adams and Thomas Jefferson, died within a few hours of each other on the Fourth of July, 1826 — the fiftieth anniversary of the signing of the Declaration of Independence, on which paper both their names appear. Monroe died on the Fourth of July, 1831. He was sometimes called the "Last Cocked Hat," as he was the last of the Revolutionary Presidents and one of the last Americans to wear the quaint old cocked hat of that glorious period.

CHAPTER XIX.

CITIZENS AND PARTIES.

THE "Era of Good Feeling" of course could not long continue. Opposition is really necessary to progress and growth, as, if we all thought alike, there would be no one to push things ahead.

So when the time for a new election came around, toward the close of President Monroe's second term, the era of good feeling became almost an era of confusion, because people were not united as to just who they wished to select as their new president. Everybody was "Republican," but their choice was by no means the same. At last, four candidates were decided upon. These were: John Quincy Adams, who had been Monroe's Secretary of State, Andrew Jackson, "the hero of New Orleans," William H. Crawford, who had been secretary of the treasury, and Henry Clay, the "great Kentuckian," speaker of the House of Representatives. So many candidates, as elections were then carried on, split up the electoral vote completely; no one candidate had a majority — that is, a large enough proportion of the entire electoral vote — and the matter had to go for

ASHLAND, THE HOME OF HENRY CLAY.

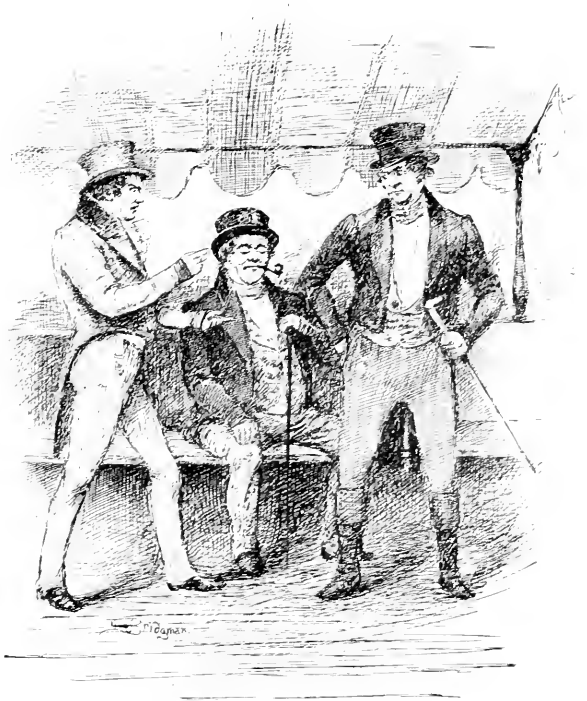
decision to the House of Representatives. There, only the three highest names were voted upon; the friends of Henry Clay cast their votes for John Quincy Adams and he was, accordingly, declared elected. This confusing election was at that time called "the scrub-race for the presidency," and a "scrub-race," you know, is a race between "scrubs" — that is, untrained and unpracticed horses, boys or men.

There was, of course, a good deal of "back-talk" and hard feelings over so mixed a contest; and, as a result, new parties were formed. At first they called themselves "Adams men," or "Jackson men." Then the Democrat-Republican party which had started in Jefferson's time took to itself the name of the Democratic Party, by which it has ever since been known, and its opponents called themselves, first, National-Republicans and afterwards Whigs.

John Quincy Adams was the son of a president — stout old John Adams, the champion of Revolution and the successor of Washington as President of the United States. Like his father, John Quincy Adams was able, honest, uncompromising, independent and firm. His administration was a success; money was plenty and the people were prosperous, but the president's firmness as to his own opinions and his unwillingness to "give in" to the plans of others made for him many enemies — especially among politicians, who, as a rule, are quick haters. So, like his father, he was defeated when nominated for a second term as president; but, with the good of his country at heart, he went into congress again as a member of the House of Representatives from Massachusetts and there had a remarkable career of seventeen years — the stout and merciless opponent of whatever seemed to him unjust, tyrannical or wrong. He was known both to friends and foes as the "Old Man Eloquent"; of him it was said that he actually "died in harness," for in the Capitol at Washington is still pointed out the spot where he fell, stricken down by paralysis in February, 1848, while attending the debates of Congress. And in the Capitol he died

It was during the administration of John Quincy Adams that two important questions arose, impelling people to much heated and wordy discussion. These were the Tariff and Internal Improvements. They were what the people of that day called "burning questions" and one of them — the Tariff — has not got through "burning" yet, in 1891. The tariff — which, by the way, is an old, old question and comes away back from the Arabic verb *a'rafa*, to inform — was originally a system of payments demanded by a government on the goods sent away from or sent into its borders. In Great Britain and America this system of payments or "duties" is demanded only on goods brought in from foreign countries — "imports," as they are called. Early in the history of the United States this question of the tariff led to a difference of opinion. Some people thought that American industries would prosper only by "protection" — that is, by placing a high tariff or duty on the same things that came in from other countries so that Americans could only afford to buy American-made goods or products. Other people held that this was unjust — that Americans ought to be allowed to buy the best they can get, whether it was of American or foreign production and if American manufacturers wished American trade they must simply make the best goods; these people held that the tariff should affect the things imported into America only so far as to help raise the money needed to carry on the government; this is what is still called "a tariff for revenue only." High tariff, or protection, was advocated by presidents Monroe and Adams; the money thus obtained was to be expended by the government upon making roads and canals and dredging harbors. This was called Internal Improvements and the tariff and internal improvements, together, made up what was known as the "American System."

But many people did not believe in this protection or the "American System," as it was called. Especially in the South was it disliked. There the people were farmers and not manufacturers,

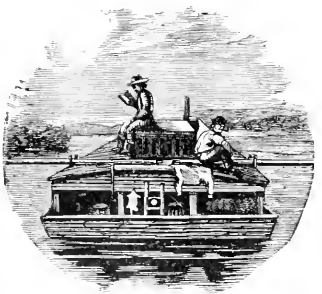


DISCUSSING THE TARIFF IN 1828.

and they objected to paying high prices on foreign goods simply, as they claimed, to "protect" the Northern manufacturer. During President Adams' term, in 1828, the tariff was still further increased and the South declared that this act was contrary to the Constitution. This question of the tariff really split the old Republican

party in two and was the origin of the later opposing parties — the Democrats and the Whigs.

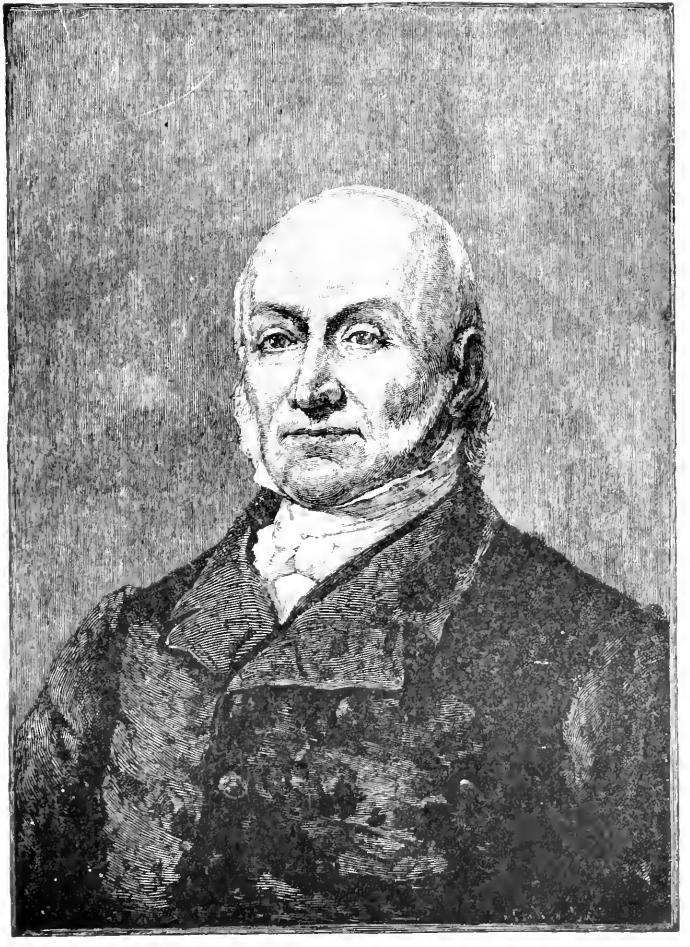
The question of Internal Improvements was however settled forever by the coming of the railroad, the telegraph and the other wonderful things that were speedily to take the place of post roads and canals; for, being carried on by private enterprise and not by Government, these new "improvements" took away the need of paying out the Government's money for such purposes.



A WESTERN FLAT-BOAT.

For these inventions were to bring about immense changes alike in the lives, the habits and the characters of the people. Up to 1825 the citizens of the United States had been satisfied to live in the ways of their fathers. They went from place to place over poor roads, afoot or on horseback, in clumsy wagon, lumbering stage-coach or heavy carriage. Goods and freight passed slowly from city to city on sailing vessel, lazy flat-boat or creaking wagon, and one of the chief obstacles to the rapid development of the western country was to be found in the length of time, the labor, the risks and the expense of getting from one point to another.

Fulton's invention and the first steamboats to which it led partly solved this question, for it made travel upon ocean, lake and river quicker and easier. But still it took too much time and trouble to get from the seashore to the lakes and rivers of the west. Enterprise, however, has ever been one of the chief points in the American character, and enterprise soon solved this problem. A public spirited and popular American statesman, De Witt Clinton, governor of New York, advocated, worked for, and finally secured the construction of a great canal that should join the lakes to the sea



JOHN QUINCY ADAMS.

Sixth president of the United States.

by stretching across New York State from the Hudson River to Lake Erie. This "big ditch," as some people called it, was eight years in building and was opened to the public on the fourth of November, 1825, when Governor Clinton, having sailed its entire length from Buffalo to Sandy Hook — a nine days' trip — poured into the Atlantic from a gilded keg the water from Lake Erie and declared the great canal "open." The act was significant. It marked a new day of American progress and, by establishing a direct and easy trade communication with the West, it made New York the metropolis of America.

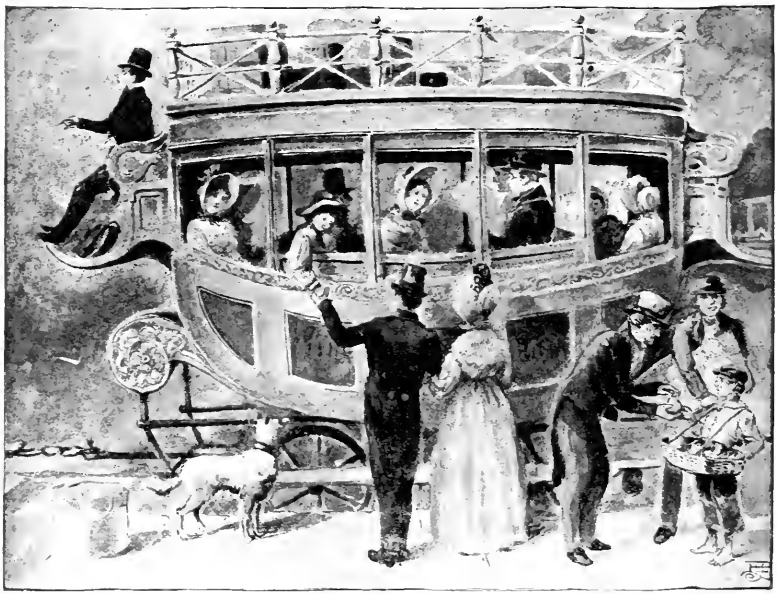
About the same time a great "National Road" for inland communication was laid out and constructed. It stretched from Maryland to Indiana and was intended for wagon travel. It was a wise piece of work and would have been a great and most important one had not the railroad soon come in to conquer distance and to get the best of time.

DE WITT CLINTON.

In 1828 the new parties had their first strong grapple. Adams was overthrown and Andrew Jackson of Tennessee was elected president. New ideas were taking the place of old ones; the approach of a certain overturn in life and manners was "in the air," and as Mr. Johnston says, "the government was changed because the people had changed."

Jackson's own story was proof of this. He was what is called a "self-made man." He was the first president to come directly from the ranks of "the people." The son of a poor North Carolina borderer, he was born into the very air of rebellion to tyranny and early imbibed a love of liberty. The boy of fourteen who dared to refuse to black the boots of his British captor was the same unyielding patriot who, behind his crazy earthworks at New Orleans, grimly awaited that

splendid British advance that he was to crush and hurl back into defeat, the same loyal American who, when the South Carolina "nullifiers" of 1832 threatened insurrection, could burst out hotly:



THE RAILWAY COACH OF OUR GRANDFATHERS.

"By the Eternal! the Union must and shall be preserved. Send for General Scott!"

The country was wonderfully prosperous when Jackson came into office in 1829. The census of 1830 showed a population of nearly thirteen millions; East and West were alike growing rapidly in wealth and numbers; manufactures were increasing; new indus-

tries were springing up; there were eighty-five hundred post-offices in the country, and the sale of its western lands to the new settlers brought into the national treasury fully twenty-five millions of dollars a year.

Before the close of Jackson's first administration the locomotive engine of Stephenson had been introduced into America and Yankee ingenuity was quick to adapt the idea to the needs of the land. The first passenger train in America was run on the Baltimore and Ohio railroad in 1830; the first successful American locomotive was built in 1833; before 1835 nineteen railroads were being built or were in operation, and before 1837 fifteen hundred miles of railway were in use in the land.

The railroad changed every thing. Quicker communication meant a busier and more productive life for the nation; and this quickly came. Steamships began to cross and re-cross the ocean; gas was introduced in cities to take the place of lamp and candle; the reaping machine hastened and enlarged farm work; coal was used as fuel; the revolving pistol did away with the old style of fire-arms; friction matches took the place of flint and steel; Morse was feeling his way toward the telegraph; education, books and newspapers were increasing and improving everywhere, and the United States of America seemed on the highroad to an unexampled prosperity

CHAPTER XX.

CHANGING DAYS.

IF President Jackson's administration was the threshold of change in American life and manners, politics and population, it also led men and women into a broader room for action and advancement. The railroad and the telegraph were not the only improvements that widened American influence. The arm of the Yankee had thus far been stout to chop and hew, to clear and build, to drain and dig; but new cities were growing; new neighborhoods were forming; people were coming closer together, as canal and railroad took the place of stage and saddle; men began to think, to desire, to invent; the brain of the Yankee was now to help the arm.

A new era in American thinking dates from "the thirties." The contemptuous query of the famous English critic, Sydney Smith: "Who ever reads an American book?" was soon to be answered: "The world." For, following the work of Irving and Cooper, of Bryant and Halleck and Drake, of Noah Webster and Lindley Murray, of Wilson and Audubon, came,

WASHINGTON IRVING.

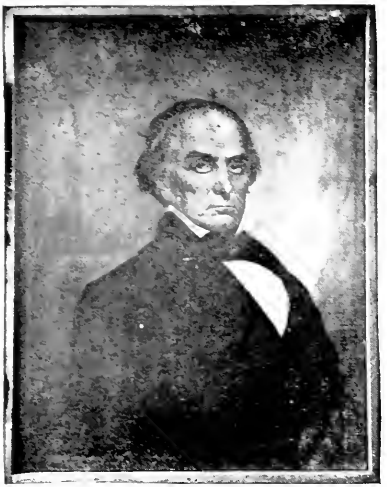
soon after 1830, the first works of our modern American writers — the poems of Whittier, Longfellow and Holmes, the romances of Hawthorne, the historical work of Bancroft and Prescott, the tales and poems of Edgar Allan Poe. Then, too, the greatest of American orators — Daniel Webster and Henry Clay — were in their prime, stirring their fellowmen by their power and their eloquence, while, among lawyers, the Americans Marshall, Kent and Story were not surpassed on either side of the Atlantic.

J. Fenimore Cooper

As men began to think their consciences were aroused to question the worth of everything that was degrading or hurtful to their fellowmen. Drunkenness, common to all America, the neglect of convicts in the prisons, and negro slavery, debasing both to master and man, were attacked by those earnest men and women that we now call "reformers," but who were then called "fanatics," and the way toward real American liberty was widened by these pioneers of virtue. From that time, too (the days of President Jackson), dates the public school — that system of free education that has been the uplifting and strengthening of America.

As the railroads ran deeper into the land, settlement reached out still further into the new sections; the "frontier" shifted almost with each year, and the pathfinder and the emigrant made more

and yet more roadways for civilization. In "the thirties" were incorporated such new cities as Buffalo, Chicago, Cleveland, Columbus, Memphis, Rochester and Toledo — centers of a growing trade that, before the coming of canal or railroad, had been but frontier posts, hard to reach and seemingly scarce worth settling. On the rolling prairie, by the shore of the great lakes or on the banks of some flowing western river the log cabin of the pioneer and the rough clearing of the settler showed the beginnings of a new home; the traveling schoolmaster carried his knowledge from district to district; the cross-roads store or tavern was the meeting place for discussion, and the exchange of news and opinions; the circuit-rider or traveling minister, counted his congregation not by numbers but by miles as, jogging along from place to place, he carried in his saddle-bags his theological library — his Bible and hymn book, "Pilgrim's Progress" and "Paradise Lost" — and stopped to preach, to talk, to marry or to bury, as his services were needed; up and down the tow path of an Ohio canal trudged a little fellow who, in after years, was to be general, college professor and president of the United States; and, typical of Western advance, in 1833 there was no Chicago — in 1839 it was a flourishing town with splendid steamers running to its docks and with its store of merchandise going south, west and north.



DANIEL WEBSTER.

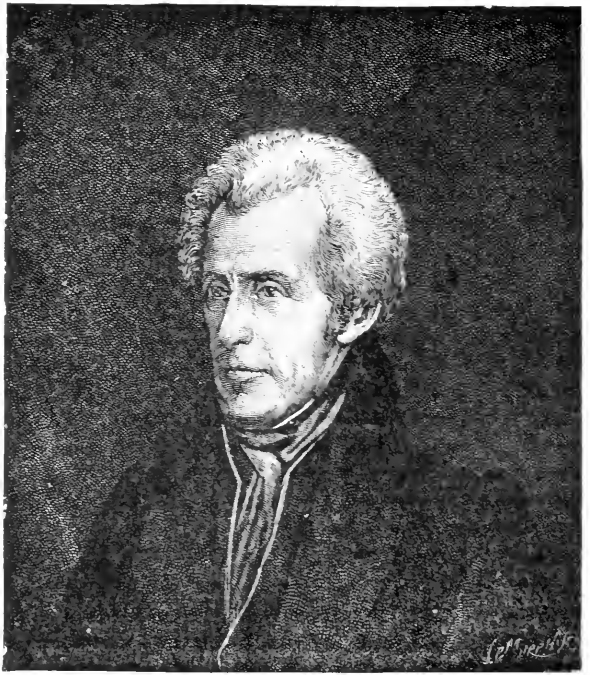
The administration of Jackson was an exciting time; besides the

new movements in thought and life that were making "the thirties" a time of changing days, the political questions and official acts, that came to disturb men's minds and rouse them to fervid support or violent opposition, were many. Jackson was a man of strong opinions, likes and dislikes; absolutely honest and with an unfaltering will he loved his friends and hated his foes; his administration was a strong one and by its firmness made the country respected abroad; but it was filled with political quarrels and party strifes, people in office who opposed the president were ruthlessly turned out to make room for his friends and supporters and a New York senator, defending the president's system of removals made the insolent announcement that has since grown famous: "to the victor belong the spoils." In the forty years between Washington and Jackson there had been but seventy-four removals from office; during the first year of Jackson's administration two thousand office holders were "turned out" to make room for the president's "supporters."

For years the money that belonged to the United States had been deposited in what was known as the United States Bank. President Jackson believed that this was not so beneficial to the people as if the money was scattered around among the banks in the different States. So he made war on the United States Bank and finally destroyed it.

Jackson also objected strongly to the "American system," of which I told you in the last chapter. The Government, he said, had no right to tax the people for making roads, digging canals and dredging harbors. So he declared war on "internal improvements" and again came out victorious.

Jackson, too, believed in the government of the United States. It was, he claimed, the one authority to which all the States must



ANDREW JACKSON.

Seventh President of the United States.

give obedience. Some of the Southern leaders, especially John C. Calhoun of South Carolina, believed that the States were superior to the general government and were at liberty to stay in the Union or go out of it as they chose. He believed, also, that if Congress made a law that was objectionable to any State, that State had the right to refuse to obey it; in other words, it could "nullify" or

make of no avail an act of Congress. In 1832, South Carolina took this step, declaring the tariff law of Congress "null and void" and prepared to resist its enforcement. President Jackson acted promptly.* He warned South Carolina that she must obey the law; he prepared to force the State to submit and he would certainly have done so had not South Carolina yielded to the president.

So many stormy scenes must, of course, have made strong friends and bitter foes for the stern soldier-president — "Old Hickory," his friends loved to call him. When the time for the new election came, in 1832, party differences ran hot and high; but Jackson was too firmly fixed in the hearts of the people, who admire pluck and courage joined to honesty and firmness, and the president received two hundred and nineteen out of the two hundred and eighty-eight electoral votes and entered upon his second term. But, though defeated, the anti-Jackson men clung to their principles. They called themselves Whigs, because the Whigs among their English ancestors had been those who resisted tyranny and they held that President Jackson was a tyrant. So the voters of the land were divided into Jackson men and anti-Jackson men — into Democrats and Whigs. The Democrats opposed the United States Bank; the Whigs desired its re-establishment. The Democrats opposed taxing the people for "internal improvements;" the Whigs wished the government to foster these and pay for them by taxation. The Democrats were believers in the rights of the States; the Whigs said the General Government should be the supreme power.

When President Jackson's second term drew to a close he declined a renomination and retired to his Tennessee farm, the only president, so it has been said, who "went out of office far more popular than he was when he entered."

But if he was popular with the masses, he had bitter enemies. The Whigs did their best to elect an anti-Jackson man; but their

* President Jackson was really a believer in the "States-rights" theory; but he was president of the whole Union and was brave enough to do his duty as president.

councils were divided; different leaders among them had their strong partisans, and in the confusion into which their stubbornness threw them they made no nomination and President Jackson's choice, Martin Van Buren of New York, was elected president, receiving one hundred and seventy electoral votes.

President Van Buren had been the strong and unfaltering supporter of Jackson, whose Secretary of State he had been for two years. But Jackson's good fortune did not follow his successor. The prosperity of the country had led people into unsafe and unwise speculations. Out of the fight which ended in the overthrow of the United States bank had come the formation throughout the country of small and unreliable banks which lent money and issued their own bills, and traded in public lands. When forced to meet the bills they had issued they had not gold and silver enough to pay them and, "failing," let the loss fall on the people. These irresponsible institutions were called "wild-cat banks" and their methods brought much distress on the country. Too late for the public safety the Government interfered and only made things worse by refusing to receive the notes of any banks. Business was thrown into confusion; prices fell; crops were poor; workmen lost their places and, in 1837, came the crash. "The Panic of 1837," as this time of disaster was called, affected the whole country; rich men became poor; bank notes were good for nothing; distress and ruin threatened many homes;

MARTIN VAN BUREN.
Eighth president of the United States.

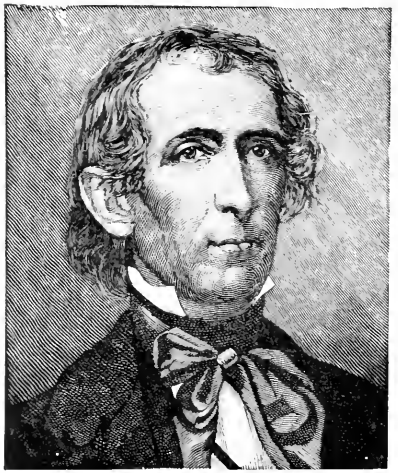
the United States government itself suffered in revenue; the State governments that had been drawn into the trouble "repudiated" — that is, refused to pay — their debts and every thing was in confusion. A special session of Congress was called and after much discussion the trouble was ended by the establishment of what are known as sub-treasuries in which the money of the government has ever since been kept above the risk of bank failures.

WILLIAM HENRY HARRISON.
Ninth president of the United States.

A country with the resources and opportunities of the United States could not long be set back by such a disaster as was the "panic of '37." Business was conducted upon a safer basis, people took up the work again at bench and plough and desk, resolved to deal squarely and honestly with one another and trade soon revived.

But President Van Buren was not forgiven the disaster that was really no fault of his. People, however, are apt to blame the man at the helm when the ship goes toward the rocks and Van Buren, they said, was an unsafe pilot. At all events a change, they declared, would be a good thing, and so, in 1840, after a campaign that was full of enthusiasm from

one end of the land to the other, General William Henry Harrison, the "hero of Tippecanoe," was elected president. It was a complete overturn in politics. The Democrats were defeated. The Whigs secured for their candidate two hundred and thirty-four out of the two hundred and ninety-four electoral votes and, amid the most unbounded rejoicings, William Henry Harrison was inaugurated as the ninth president of the United States.



JOHN TYLER.
Tenth president of the United States.

The rejoicing, however, was short lived. Within a month from his inauguration President Harrison died suddenly, and, in accordance with the Constitution, the Vice-President, John Tyler of Virginia, succeeded to the vacant chair as president.

The succession proved disastrous to the Whigs. Tyler was not in sympathy with the party that had elected him; he had been nominated "to draw the Southern vote" and before he had been long in office he showed that his sympathies were really against the Whigs.

Politics "tumbled" again. Parties were divided and the very men who in 1840 had gone about in procession and parade singing out the party chorus:

> "We'll hurl little Van from his station
> And elevate Tippecanoe,"

now were sorry enough at what they had done and were hot and bitter against the president they had placed in power. One of their

party cries had been "Tippecanoe and Tyler, too!" They had got "Tyler, too," now and still they were not happy.

In 1840 the population of the United States had grown to over seventeen millions. Two new States, Arkansas and Michigan, had been admitted to the Union and the "old thirteen" were now twenty-six. A treaty with Great Britain in 1842 pledged each country to send back for trial any criminal who had escaped from justice; it also settled the northern boundary of the United States, which in 1839 had almost brought on a war between Maine and New Brunswick. In 1837 Samuel F. B. Morse took out a patent for his electric telegraph, and in 1844 the first telegraph line was constructed, connecting Baltimore and Washington.

CHAPTER XXI.

THE SHADOW OF DISCORD.

THE greatest man of this nineteenth century — Abraham Lincoln the American — said, years ago: "I believe this government cannot endure permanently half slave and half free." What had gone before, what followed later, alike were proofs of this. When Pinzon the Spaniard brought his negro slaves into Cuba in 1508; when the Dutch sea-captain ran the first cargo of stolen Africans into the James River in 1619; when Eli Whitney made cotton the "king" by his disastrous invention of the cotton-gin in 1793; — and when, on the other hand, the Pilgrims of the Mayflower landed at Plymouth in 1620; when the Declaration of Independence proclaimed the equality of all men in 1776; when the stream of emigration bore

the love of liberty into western wilderness and prairie, the causes that led to what one statesman declared to be "an irrepressible conflict" were established.

When two boys who have been companions and bosom-friends from infancy "get mad" with one another — as boys (and girls, too), sometimes will — the trouble grows greater as the cause of the first pout or the first hasty word is dwelt upon and made to lead to others. It was so with the two sections of the American Union. Almost from the start they disagreed as to the extension of negro slavery; across that imaginary boundary, which the surveyors appointed by William Penn and Lord Baltimore drew in 1763, and which has ever since been known as "Mason and Dixon's line," the pout and shrug and hasty word were flung; the question as to which had the most "right," which was "sovereign," the State or the nation, was argued, discussed and quarreled over; minor questions as to just what the constitution meant when it said this or that, and numerous differences of opinion on matters of national or sectional importance caused the boy at the south of Mason and Dixon's line to say harsh words to the boy at the north; and the boy at the north, though too often willing to "give in" if only he could keep on unmolested at his work of accumulating, sometimes flung back harsh words in reply to the boy at the south; and so, little by little, the shadow of discord grew broader and blacker and matters slowly ripened for a real "getting mad" between these two close comrades and fast friends.

In 1844 the United States of America were at peace with the world; apparently they were at peace among themselves. With the exception of certain local quarrels such as that in regard to who should vote in the State of Rhode Island (which led to what is known as the "Dorr Rebellion" of 1844) and as to who should pay rent for the land in New York (which led to "the Anti-rent War" of 1844) there was nothing to disturb people or lead their thoughts away from successful farming or manufacturing or money-getting.

But in 1844, Texas asked to come into the United States; and this brought about a renewal of the angry talk, while the shadow of discord grew denser.

Texas (from the old Indian word *tchas* or *tejas*, "friends") was a part of old Mexico. But when Mexico revolted from Spanish rule and set up as a republic, many Americans, who had settled in its

ANTI-RENTERS, DISGUISED AS INDIANS, AMBUSHING THE SHERIFF.

northern section, were led into disputes with the new republic as to the ownership of the land; the Mexican government was unjust and ugly in its decisions, and the American element in Northern Mexico forced that section into revolt in 1835. Under the lead of a gallant fighter, known as General Sam Houston, the Republic of

Texas was proclaimed. The new republic was a vast territory larger than all of France, and when in 1844 it expressed a desire to join the great northern republic as one of the United States the Southern States rejoiced exceedingly, for this would bring on great increase of power to the slave States: on the other hand the North opposed such an action both as giving too much power to the slave States and as a breach of friendship with Mexico, which had not yet acknowledged the independence of Texas.

But the Southern leaders were determined to have Texas if they could. The presidential election of 1844 turned on the question of its annexation: Henry Clay, the Whig candidate for president, was not sufficiently emphatic in his objection to the "Texas scheme" to please a certain section of the anti-slavery men at the North who called themselves the Liberty party: their hostility lost Clay the State of New York, and the Democratic candidate, James K. Polk, was elected president by a vote of one hundred and seventy of the two hundred and seventy-five electoral votes.

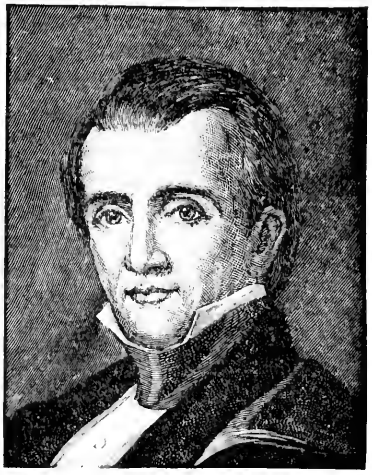
Of course Texas was annexed; and in December, 1845, she was admitted to the Union. Florida came in just before her, in March, 1845, and it so happened that the vast southwestern commonwealth was the last slave State to be admitted to the Union. For from that day the shadow of discord grew heavier and blacker.

President Polk's administration witnessed many signs of progress in the land. In 1846, Elias Howe invented the sewing-machine; in 1847, Richard M. Hoe invented his cylinder printing press; in 1846, Dr. Morton discovered the use of ether, and thus were household labor, the spreading of news and the bearing of pain made lighter and easier.

But the administration of President Polk also plunged the country into war. It presented also the example of the strong punishing the weak — never a pleasant spectacle and one that is apt to lead to the question with which so many boys are familiar: "Say, why don't you take one of your size?" For in May, 1846, the re-

public of the United States declared war against the republic of Mexico.

To be sure Mexico was ugly and quarrelsome. She held a grudge against the United States for helping and taking Texas; she owed American citizens money and refused to pay her debts; she growled in most emphatic Spanish about the boundary lines the United States demanded; she threatened all sorts of things. But it was largely talk. Mexico had no wish to fight the United States; she was ready to consider a peaceful settling of the matter; but, all too hastily, in April, 1846, President Polk ordered General Zachary Taylor to take possession of the disputed strip of land on the boundary; there was a meeting between American and Mexican soldiers; shots were fired; men were killed, and the war was begun.



JAMES K. POLK.

Eleventh president of the United States.

It was not difficult at the outset to tell what the end would be. Mexico was torn by quarrels and feuds; her soldiers were untrained; her war materials poor; her treasury almost empty; her leaders ignorant and inefficient. The United States troops were well officered and maneuvered, and though the Mexican soldiers were brave fighters and repeatedly outnumbered the Americans — sometimes five to one — the superiority of American drill and American leadership always won the day. From first to last the war was a series of victories and, though we question the justice of the quarrel and deplore the quite unnecessary fight, we cannot but swing our caps over the pluck, the persistence and the

valor of the American soldiers and their leaders. In a hostile and unknown land, against the odds of heavier numbers, stubborn resistance, miserable roads, lack of supplies and an unhealthy country, the American soldiers fought their way to victory and made the names of Palo Alto and Buena Vista, of Cerro Gordo and Contreras, of Cherubusco and Chapultepec glorious in the annals of bravery, while the names of such generals as Taylor and Kearney, Scott and Worth do but lead the roll of the daring and heroic men who followed them to the end.

By the treaty of Guadalupe Hidalgo, which put an end to this two years' war, the territory of the United States was greatly increased. The immense section now occupied by Texas, New Mexico, Arizona, Colorado, Utah, Nevada and California, nearly a million square miles in extent, was added to the republic; fifteen millions of dollars were paid to Mexico for the territory thus given up; peace was declared and the victorious Americans returned to their homes in the North.

But if the war had been an unjust one on the part of the United States, it brought about trouble enough in the end and deepened the shadow of discord into a dense and overhanging cloud. At once, after the new territory had been secured, the South demanded that it be made slave soil; the North as strongly objected and demanded that slavery should be therein forbidden. Again it looked as if the boy at the south and the boy at the north of Mason and Dixon's line would come to blows; but they decided finally to leave the question to those who should settle on the new lands, and thus an uncertain condition of affairs was brought about. This, because it was in the hands of those who hurriedly settled (or "squatted") on the vacant lands, was known as "squatter sovereignty," and the black looks across the line still continued.

In 1848, General Zachary Taylor, "the hero of Buena Vista," was elected president of the United States. There was a feeling throughout the country that "old Rough and Ready," as he was called, had not been well-treated by the Government during the war, and the

AT BUENA VISTA.

"The American soldiers fought their way to victory."

opponents of the party in power eagerly took him as their candidate. The result was a victory for the Whigs, but their soldier-president did not long survive his last victory, for he died after only a year and four months of office. The vice-president, Millard Fillmore, succeeded to the vacant chair and found himself confronted by important questions.

ZACHARY TAYLOR.
Twelfth president of the United States.

In 1846, the long-standing dispute with England as to the northern boundary of the United States ended in a treaty which gave to the United States all the country south of that degree of latitude marked on the maps as forty-nine. The United States held out some time for possession as far as fifty-four degrees and forty minutes north latitude, and some were even ready to go to war over it, with their battle-cry of "Fifty-four Forty or Fight!" but better councils prevailed and the treaty of 1844 settled the dispute.

The United States now owned the Pacific coast from the head of the Gulf of California to the shores of Puget Sound. It was a noble empire, but little was known of it in the East, save as the land of Indians, fur-traders and cattle-raisers. But suddenly, in 1849, came the news: "There

is gold in California!" The precious metal had been discovered in the Sacramento River country; it was said that no such gold mines had ever before been found and at once there was a great rush to "the diggings." The news spread; the "finds" proved richer and richer; the rush to the Pacific broke into a regular "gold fever" that attacked the world; all classes caught it; around "the Horn," across the isthmus, over the plains the gold seekers hurried, and into the old half-Spanish quiet of California came the excitement, the fever, the haste, the selfishness, the greed and the danger that always accompany the mad race for wealth. Within two years a hundred thousand people had gone into California; San Francisco grew into a city of twenty thousand inhabitants and, wherever gold was found, there men risked all for fortune; but while some obtained the prize they sought, many others found only failure, loss, ruin and death.

MILLARD FILLMORE.
Thirteenth president of the United States.

But the majority of the gold hunters of '49, though absorbed in their search for wealth, were still Americans; they soon realized the need of a strong government and some higher authority than the self-appointed "committees" of cabin, camp and settlement. In 1849, they set up a state government of their own and asked for admittance into the Union. Then there was trouble at once. The constitution of the newly-formed State prohibited slavery; part of its territory lay south of the line marked out at the time of the Missouri Compromise, and the South demanded that slavery be

allowed in the new State. Other troubles arose. Texas claimed a part of New Mexico, which had been ceded to the United States; the South demanded that its runaway slaves who escaped to the North should be returned to their masters; the North demanded that the buying and selling of negro slaves in the capital of the nation be stopped.

So the shadow was growing denser, when Henry Clay endeavored to suggest a "compromise" that should "fix things" all right. This was called the "Omnibus Bill" or the "Compromise of 1850," because it undertook to settle all the disputes, and to hold, as does an omnibus, all that can be crowded into it. By this compromise it was agreed to admit California into the Union without slavery; the buying and selling of slaves were to be prohibited in the District of Columbia, but slavery itself was not prohibited there; ten million dollars were paid Texas to give up her claim to New Mexico; in the territories formed of the new lands slavery was neither forbidden nor allowed, and a Fugitive Slave Law was passed.

FRANKLIN PIERCE.
Fourteenth president of the United States.

But the "Compromise of 1850" did not settle things. There was, especially, a fierce opposition to the Fugitive Slave Law which made the United States officers slave-catchers. But when the election of 1852 came around the opposition was divided. The Southern Whigs and the Northern Whigs had a falling out; the Liberty party now calling itself the Free-soil party, denounced the Fugitive Slave Law; a good many men refused to

vote at all because they did not like any of the things offered them, and Franklin Pierce, the Democratic candidate, was elected president with two hundred and fifty-four electoral votes.

Then came four years more of talk and trouble. Anti-slavery feeling grew in the North; the boastings about the supreme rights of the States increased in the South. In 1854 the new territories of Kansas and Nebraska, west of the Missouri River, were set apart, and the question of the admission of slavery therein was left to the decision of the settlers themselves — a case of "squatter's sovereignty" again.

JAMES BUCHANAN

Fifteenth president of the United States.

When this measure, known as the Kansas-Nebraska Bill, was introduced into Congress, there was a great stir. By the Missouri Compromise of 1820 which, you remember, prohibited slavery north of the southern boundary of Missouri, the new territories by right were to be forever "free soil." But the leaders of the majority in Congress, to gain their purpose, voted to repeal the Missouri Compromise and to let the people who entered the new territory make it slave or free as they preferred.

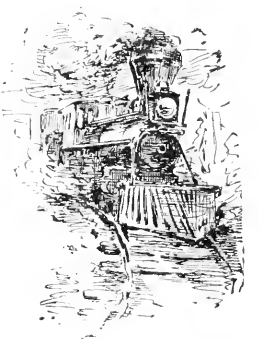
This led to a terrible time. People poured into the new territories. The free-state people and the slave-state people alike sought to obtain the mastery; there were mobs and fightings and feuds of the most bitter and bloody kind. But the free-soil people at last prevailed and in the very heat of the struggle came the election of 1856.

By this time the Whig party was broken in pieces. Out of it came those who opposed the stupid repeal of the Missouri Compromise, who objected to the Fugitive Slave Law and who sided with the free-state people in the Kansas trouble. These joined with the Free-soil party and formed what has ever since been known as the Republican party. They selected as their candidate for president, Colonel John C. Frémont, "the Pathfinder," who had blazed a path across the Rocky Mountains, conquered California and led the way westward for settlement and civilization. The Democrats nominated James Buchanan of Pennsylvania who had been President Polk's Secretary of State; while a third party, which opposed giving place or office to foreigners, and which was called the American or "Know Nothing" party re-nominated President Fillmore. The struggle was bitter; but Buchanan was elected president by one hundred and seventy-four of the two hundred and ninety-six electoral votes. Frémont, however, carried nearly all the free States with an electoral vote of one hundred and fourteen, and when the South saw this sure and steady growth of anti-slavery feeling, her leaders realized that their power was slipping away and the shadow of discord, now grown into the blackest of clouds, seemed ready to burst upon the heads of the people.

CHAPTER XXII.

FOR UNION.

IN 1860, in spite of the increasing danger of their political troubles, the United States of America were wonderfully prosperous. Population had grown to more than thirty-one millions; the roll of States now numbered thirty-three — Iowa having been admitted to the Union in 1846, Wisconsin in 1848, California in 1850, Minnesota in 1858 and Oregon in 1859; there were over thirty thousand miles of railroad in operation and thousands of miles of telegraph; American commerce occupied the second place in the world; American agriculture stood first; coal and gold, silver and copper were discovered in productive mines, and in Pennsylvania the finding of petroleum beds in 1859, led to almost as much excitement as the discovery of gold in California ten years before. The public schools now numbered over a hundred thousand, while four hundred colleges cared for the advanced education of the young. Machinery was finding entrance into almost every occupation of life, from farming to shoe making and sugar refining; the cities were improving alike in size and in comforts; the police and fire departments were organized into almost military discipline; the laying of a telegraph line beneath the ocean to England was attempted in 1857, and the United States were believed to be worth in property and money fully sixteen billions of dollars.



But money is not everything in the upbuilding of a nation. Principle and character are of first importance. Beneath all this prosperity were dissatisfaction and discord. The advance in wealth and facilities had been confined to the North; in this great prosperity the South did not seem to be a sharer. A few wise ones at the South saw that this condition was due to slavery; but the people had not yet learned that slave labor can never build a successful State, and they tried all the harder to win in a losing fight.

DINAH MORRIS'S CERTIFICATE OF FREEDOM.

In the North since first in 1777, Dinah Morris, the Vermont slave, was given her "freedom papers," slavery had dwindled and died away; in the South it had grown steadily. In the North everybody had to work to live; in the South work was considered as "low;" and so there came to be, at the South, three classes — the rich whites, the poor whites and the negro slaves.

The free States were growing in the North; there was but little

chance for the introduction of slavery in the new Territories; the plan to purchase Cuba had fallen through; the slave power in Congress was fast being outnumbered by the free-soil supporters; the three hundred and fifty thousand slaveholders of the South saw that they would soon be no match in politics or power for the freeholders of the North; soon the South must submit to the will of the majority.

Feeling as they did; believing, as they had always been taught to believe, in the supreme right of the State to say what it wanted and what it would have; seeing the power slipping away from them and thinking that without slave labor ruin was certain to come upon them, it is scarcely to be wondered at that the leaders in the South tried first to force things in their favor, and, failing in this, threatened to withdraw from the Union whenever they saw fit.

For years their hold upon the Government, aided by the selfish desire of people in the North to avoid all trouble and annoyance had given the Southern leaders "the say" in national affairs. It was these leaders who had brought about the purchase of the vast territory of Louisiana in 1803; they had insisted on the slavery line in the Missouri Compromise in 1820; they had demanded the annexation of Texas in 1845; they had put into effect the cruel Fugitive Slave Law of 1850; they had forced the unwilling and fatal "squatter sovereignty" clause into the Kansas-Nebraska bill of 1854; they had attempted to bring about the acquisition of Cuba in 1854; they had forced from the Supreme Court the decision that it was the duty of Congress to protect slavery in the territories (known as the "Dred Scott Decision" of 1856); they had sought, as a desperate measure of safety, to reintroduce the horrible African Slave Trade in 1859, and, as a final move, they had asserted in 1860 their determination to leave the Union — to "secede" — unless they obtained their "rights."

But the leaders of the North were growing each year more and more determined. To be sure the people did not pay very much attention to all this talk; they were too busy about their own

affairs. But those who did look into things declared that it was time to put an end to Southern presumption. To the Southern leaders they said: You can regulate the slave question so far as your own section is concerned, but you must not try to force the North and West into slavery. You have broken the agreement of 1820,

AMONG THE SUGAR CANE.

known as the Missouri Compromise, but we will make Kansas a free State in spite of you; you have compelled the courts to say that Congress must protect slavery in the territories, but this we will never consent to; you have shown a desire to make slavery a national institution, but that you shall never do; and we warn you that the Constitution does not admit the right of any State to

say just what it shall do or how it shall act, and that no State has a right to leave the Union of its own accord.

The breach was widening. The United States of America were becoming sectional — that is, slavery, believed in by the South, abhorred by the North, was setting North and South at enmity. To-day slavery is dead, and North and South can never again be arrayed against one another; but in 1860 slavery tinged everything. The love of it led to the brutal assault upon Senator Charles Sumner of Massachusetts and beat him from his chair in the Senate in 1856; the hatred of it led to the armed attack in Virginia in 1859 precipitated by a free-soil partisan and known as "John Brown's raid," and both the attack on Sumner and the "raid" of John Brown, though both were the result of a fiery fanaticism and though neither of them were due to the plottings of rival parties, were still fastened upon the sections from which the actors came, and increased the growing anger that was showing itself North and South.

It was in the midst of this growing discord that the presidential election of 1860 came as, what we call, the climax. The Democratic party split in two and made separate nominations; the Republican party raised the cry of "No extension of slavery!" and by a total of one hundred and eighty electoral votes carried the day, and Abraham Lincoln of Illinois was elected president.

The hottest and most determined of the Southern States was South Carolina. From the days of President Andrew Jackson and the "Nullifiers," it had always maintained its right to leave the Union, and the election of Lincoln gave it the opportunity it sought. A Northern president, backed by the Northern people, means the downfall of the South, said South Carolina. I shall leave the Union, and you, my comrades of the Cotton States, if you know what is best for you, will go out too.

The State Convention of South Carolina at once assembled and on the twentieth of December, 1860, passed an "ordinance of secession," wiped out the act by which the State had so many years before de-

clared its acceptance of the Constitution of the United States, and declared that "the Union now subsisting between South Carolina and other States, under the name of the United States of America" was dissolved.

Led on by the bold step of South Carolina the other "Cotton States" followed suit, and in January and February, 1861, similar ordinances of secession were passed by Mississippi, Florida, Alabama, Georgia, Louisiana and Texas.

Acting quickly, the secession element in the seven rebellious States at once proceeded to "force the issue." They sent delegates to a general convention held at Montgomery in Alabama, set up a government under the name of the Confederate States of America, adopted a constitution (that was almost exactly the same as the Constitution of the United States, with slavery and State sovereignty added), elected Jefferson Davis as president, established "departments" of state, war, the treasury, the navy, etc., decided upon a great seal and flag (popularly called the "stars and bars," as against the "stars and stripes"), and prepared to defend their action by war if need be. But, they all declared, that will scarcely be necessary; the North will not fight.

GREAT SEAL OF THE "CONFEDERACY."

And, at first, it did look as though the North would not fight. President Buchanan did nothing; he said he did not see how he could prevent a State from seceding if it really desired or attempted to; the politicians said: O, the trouble will be fixed up with another compromise; the chief associates of the president were really in sympathy with the secessionists, and when Congress adjourned in March, 1861, no step had been taken to secure the protection or uphold the dignity of the United States of America.

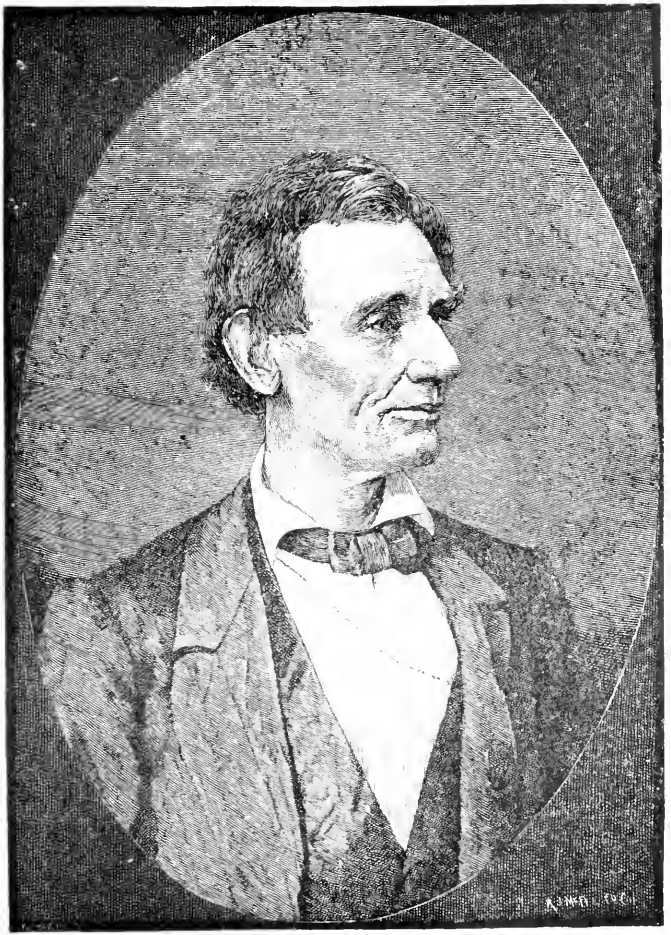
Abraham Lincoln was inaugurated as president of the United States on the fourth of March, 1861. At once he found himself

face to face with the greatest difficulties. He was the head of a new party, without experience and without standing. He was confronted by seven States in open rebellion to the constituted authority of the National Government. The men from whose hands he received the reins of power were hostile to his party and his principles and had helped rather than hindered the efforts of the "State's Rights rebels." Forts, arsenals, mints, custom houses, ship yards, naval stores and other public properties of the United States had been deliberately seized by the States within whose borders they were located, and transferred to the new "Confederate" government. The little army of the United States had been scattered and forced to surrender to the rebels. Officers of the army and navy, representatives and senators in Congress and officials in the service and pay of the United States, declared that they must "follow their State," resigned their stations or offices and went to their homes. In the harbor of Charleston, South Carolina, Fort Sumter, one of the very few forts still held by the United States troops, was surrounded and besieged by the South Carolina forces, and, of the navy of the United States, only two insignificant vessels were ready for service along the whole Atlantic coast. To such a pass had Southern scheming and the sympathy or stupidity of the party in power brought the dignity and the ability of the United States.

Abraham Lincoln was clear-headed and far-sighted. He felt that the new administration stood on dangerous ground. One hasty move, one tyrannical act might turn the tide against the Union — and with him the preservation of the Union was the leading desire.

His inaugural address, now held by critics to be one of the greatest state papers in history, while full of the hope of peace, was still firm and unfaltering in its purpose to maintain the Union, whatever happened.

"The Union is unbroken," he said; "and to the extent of my ability I shall take care, as the Constitution itself expressly enjoins



ABRAHAM LINCOLN.

Sixteenth president of the United States.

upon me, that the laws of the Union be faithfully executed in *all* the States." And then, placing the responsibility where it rightly belonged — upon those who struck the first blow — he said: "In your hands, my dissatisfied fellow countrymen, and not in mine, is the momentous issue of civil war. You can have no conflict without being yourselves the aggressors. You have no oath registered in heaven to destroy the Government, while I have the most solemn one to preserve, protect and defend it."

There is an old, old proverb that declares: Whom the gods would destroy they first make mad. The destruction of slavery was ordained; but its supporters were surely maddened and blinded by passion or they would have heeded, before it was too late, the tender appeal to their memories with which this first inaugural of President Lincoln concluded: "We are not enemies," he said, "but friends. We must not be enemies. Though passion may have strained, it must not break our bonds of affection. The mystic cords of memory, stretching from every battle-field and patriot grave to every living heart and hearthstone all over this broad land, will yet swell the chorus of the Union when again touched, as surely they will be, by the better angels of our nature."

SEAL OF THE UNITED STATES.
Dies at 1884.

But kind words and brotherly appeals were of no avail. The leaders of the South were determined. And when, in April, President Lincoln ordered a fleet to sail to Charleston with supplies to the starving garrison of Fort Sumter, the fiery cry for action came from the chiefs of the rebellion. "You must sprinkle blood in the face of the people!" one of them declared. South Carolina, as she had led the revolt, fired the first shot. On the twelfth of April, 1861, the Confederate batteries in Charleston Harbor opened fire upon Fort Sumter which, for thirty-six hours, the commandant, Major

Robert Anderson, held in the face of a fierce bombardment. Then with ammunition exhausted, provisions gone and the building on fire, Major Anderson surrendered. The flag of the Union gave place to the flag of rebellion and the first victory of secession was won.

But it was a victory that proved defeat. The South had struck the first blow and that settled the question in the North. The word "Sumter has been fired on," flew from city to city and from town

FORT SUMTER IN CHARLESTON HARBOR.

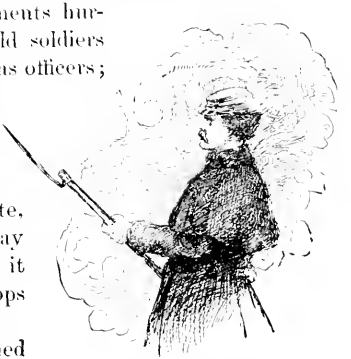
to town. There was but one response: The Union shall be preserved! The North which — so the Southern leaders had declared — would be torn and rent by feud and dispute if civil war was threatened, became, instead, united in an instant. Men who had bitterly opposed one another in politics now joined hands in defense of an imperiled Union. From school-house and court-house, from church and railway station, from hotel, from

public building and from private house, the flag of the Union was flung to the breeze; and when, the day after Sumter, President Lincoln declared the Southern States in rebellion, and called for volunteers to put it down, the struggle for life or death was at hand.

CHAPTER XXIII.

A FIGHT FOR LIFE.

THAT shot at Sumter, as has been shown, roused the North to action. "Why, this is open rebellion!" everybody cried, and at once without regard to party the men of the North — Republicans and Democrats alike — sprang to arms. President Lincoln, on the fifteenth of April, called for seventy-five thousand men "to put down the rebellion"; four times as many responded; militia regiments hurried to the defense of Washington; old soldiers who had seen service were in demand as officers; money for war purposes was voted by States and cities; the "war governors" were patriotic, active and alert; new regiments were speedily formed or "recruited" in every Northern State, and though the city of Washington lay on the border of the Southern land it was soon so circled with Union troops that its safety was speedily assured.



But the "war-fever" was not confined

to the North. The conflict was to be a struggle between American citizens, and when once the American spirit of resistance is aroused, enthusiasm and determination know no section. The South, led into war by the efforts of its leaders, was bound to follow the lead of South Carolina. The attack on Sumter and the rising in the North were followed by quite as much excitement and enthusiasm in the South; one after another the seceding States wheeled into line; the Confederate Government called for thirty-five thousand volunteers, and, as in the North, four times as many offered their services.

Men enlist to fight for various reasons. Love of excitement, hope of reward, desire for glory, love of country — these are the principal causes, and in the war between the States, from 1861 to 1865, these reasons led many young men to leave their comfortable homes, their studies, their occupations, their pleasures and their gains, and with sword at side or gun at shoulder to march South or North to fight for a principle dear alike to each.

From the attack on Sumter on the twelfth of April, 1861, and the first blood at Baltimore on the nineteenth of April following, down to the surrender of General Lee, the chief of the Confederate forces, on the ninth of April, 1865 — almost four years to a day — the fight for life, for Union, for supremacy, went fiercely on. All too soon the people, North and South, awoke to the sad truth that this was an American war — a "duel to the death," a strife between equally brave and equally determined foemen. The seventy-five thousand volunteers first called for in the North grew to an army of three million men before the end came; the thirty-five thousand volunteers of the South grew to a million and a half. In 1863 when the strife was at its height and the struggle was the fiercest, the North had nearly a million men in the field; the South had

seven hundred thousand. The North, as the defenders of the Union, operating in a hostile country, had need for a larger force than the South; conquered territory must be garrisoned; lines of communication needed to be kept open and defended, and a stretch of battle front reaching from the Mississippi to the sea demanded constant watching to prevent invasion, raid or occupation.

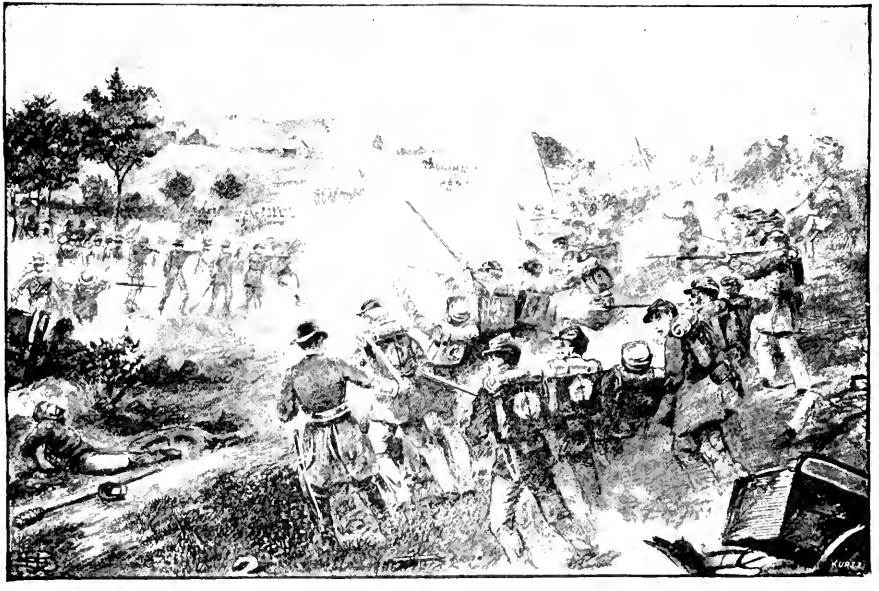
IN THE ENLISTMENT OFFICE.

Steadily, year by year, the power of the Union was more and more displayed. The South fought bravely, stubbornly, heroically, but from the first the result of the struggle could be foreseen. The North had the stronger arm and this at last must win the day. But

when that day came the cost of the fearful fight had been six hundred thousand Northern and Southern lives laid down for a principle and six thousand millions of dollars spent. This it had cost to destroy the doctrine of the sovereign power of the State as opposed to the supremacy of the nation, to do away forever with slavery on American soil and to make of the United States a real nation; this it had cost to make the republic a unit, to secure perpetual peace and a lasting union to all Americans forever.

The war was a stubborn strife, not because of any hatred between North and South — for this there really was not — but because of the determination of both contesting sides to win. From 1861 to 1863 the government at Washington was busied in surrounding the confederacy in its encircling grasp; from 1863 to 1865 this grasp was gradually closed and tightened until it held within it the armies and the cities of the South. The battle of Gettysburg in the East and the capture of Vicksburg in the West, on or about the fourth of July, 1863, marked the turning point of the war.

Even in the first year of the war, although the Union army lost its first great battle (Bull Run, July 21, 1861), and in the West found itself defeated at Wilson's Creek (August 10, 1861), it still advanced its lines into the southern territory and narrowed the limits of the Confederacy. In the second year, still more territory was captured; but, within its lessening territory, the Confederate army stood firm and confident, undismayed by its defeat at Antietam in the East (September 17, 1862) and Pittsburgh Landing in the West (April 7, 1862). In the third year both sides being now trained to war, clinched for a decisive grapple. General Lee and his splendidly disciplined army in the East made a wonderful attempt to break through the Union lines and invade the North, but fell back, baffled and defeated, at Gettysburg (July 3, 1863). Lookout Mountain gave the victory to the Union army in the West, and the grapple of 1863 ended in a loss of strength and confidence for the South. In the fourth year the fight raged about Richmond, now



CHARGE OF THE UNION TROOPS AT GETTYSBURG.

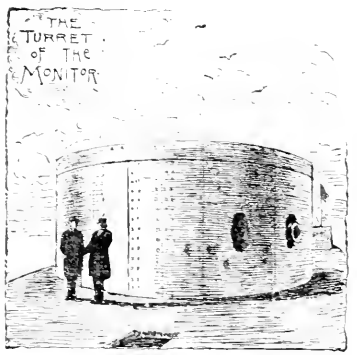
"The turning point of the war."

the Confederate capital, where Lee, proving himself a great soldier, was at last pitted against a greater — General U. S. Grant. There it became the fight of the giants, while at the West General Sherman utterly crushed out the Confederate army and making his bold and remarkable "march to the sea," hurried northward to give his help to Grant. In the fifth year the Union grasp tightened; the forces of the Confederacy lay now within the hand of the Federal government; its territory had shrunk to the narrow sea strip between Richmond and Charleston; Sherman drew nearer to Grant; in April the end came; the grasp closed around the encircled Confederates and the surrender of General Lee on the ninth of April, 1865, with the consequent surrender of General Johnston on April 26 closed the stubborn strife, and ended the possibility of Americans ever again meeting in the shock and struggle of civil war.

The war between the States had been fought for a principle, and by its results that principle was forever assured — the Union was established, the nation was supreme. "My paramount object," said President Lincoln, "is: to save the Union." He did save it; and Americans can never cease to revere the unfaltering faith in his cause that sustained the great president, nor need they ever regret the cost in blood and treasure at which the American Union was saved from destruction.

But the war settled other questions than that of national supremacy. Especially did it end forever on American soil the curse of human slavery. From the first, men saw — more and more clearly as the days went by — that slavery was doomed. The war was not fought to abolish slavery, but slavery was abolished because of the war. The conflict, however, had been raging a year and a half; twenty thousand men had laid down their lives; eighty thousand had been maimed or crippled in battle and many other thousands had been stricken down by sickness and disease before the stern necessity that men knew existed but that the Government hesitated to acknowledge was made into an absolute deed — emancipation. But

the step was taken at last. Five days after the battle of Antietam — on the twenty-second of September, 1862 — President Lincoln made the greatest move of the war and issued a proclamation declaring that on and after the first day of January, 1863, "all persons held as slaves within any State or designated part of a State the people whereof shall then be in rebellion against the United States shall be thenceforward and forever free." On the first of January, 1863, the official proclamation of emancipation was issued. "And thus," says Mr. Schurz, "Abraham Lincoln wrote his name upon the books of history with the title dearest to his heart — the liberator of the slave."



Fighting is a bloody and brutal expedient — a course always to be avoided if in justice and honor it can be avoided. But when war comes it must be made effective by every possible means. The abolition of slavery was one of these means; the abolition of wooden war-ships was another. The war led thinking people to suggest and invent many improvements in firearms, camp equipage and the munitions of war, but the cunning brain of Captain John Ericsson revolutionized the navies of the world and showed that iron could float and fight on the water. The story of his little ironclad vessel, the Monitor, is as simple as it is stirring. The Confederates had taken the captured frigate, Merrimac, fitted her with an iron overcoat and sent her to destroy the Union war-ships around Fortress Monroe. This she did and was about starting out on a voyage of destruction among the sea-coast cities of the North, when on the morning of the ninth of March, 1862, the little Monitor ("a cheese-box on a raft," so the Confederates called her), appeared on the scene, fought the

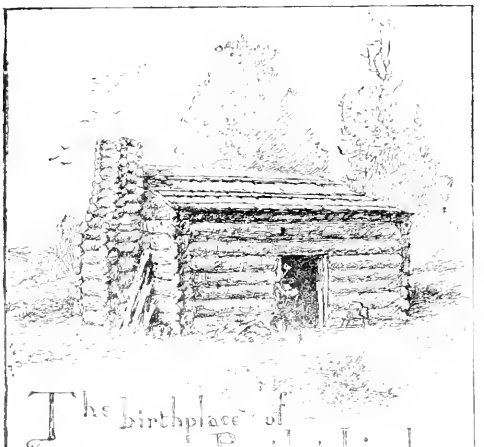
Merrimac for four hours and drove her back to cover. From that day wooden war-vessels were doomed. Ironclads were built by all the nations as the only safe and sure kind of sea-fighters; and "the white squadron" of 1891 is the natural result in the navy of the United States of Ericsson's plucky little Monitor.

The war, though terrible and bloody, really helped to make men and women gentler and more thoughtful. It taught the people to look after those who were fighting their battles for them. Societies were formed for the careful protection of the soldiers' interests: to help them as they marched to battle, to help them as they lived in camp ... help them as they fell wounded on the field, to help them as they lay sick or maimed in hospital, to help them as they returned disabled to their homes. The greatest of the societies, the United States Sanitary Commission, expended millions of dollars in thus helping the soldiers. And, last but not least, the humanity that was a result of this long and bitter war was one of its most blessed influences. The war was in fact an armed rebellion against national authority. Such uprisings, before and since, have always, when unsuccessful, been attended by punishment for treason inflicted by the victorious government. The American civil war resulted in the triumph of the national government, and yet not one "rebel" was punished for his treason; not one of the leaders of the revolt was made to suffer the historic penalty of his action.

WORKING FOR THE SOLDIERS.

The war had been in progress for more than three years when in November, 1864, a presidential election was held. The minority party — those timid Northerners who declared that the war was a failure and ought to cease — rallying under the Democratic banner,

nominated for president, General George B. McClellan, one of the brilliant but unsuccessful Union generals — a remarkable organizer of forces, but not a successful leader of troops; the Republicans (including very many "war Democrats") re-nominated Abraham Lincoln, and the result proved their wisdom. Mr. Lincoln was re-elected by two hundred and twelve out of the two hundred and thirty-three electoral votes and, under his guidance, the war was fought out to the end that was, even then, in sight.



But, when that end came, the great president, through whose wisdom and patience it had been reached, fell suddenly — the chief martyr of the great conflict, done to death by the bullet of an obscure assassin, from no other reason than a desire for that notoriety that Americans, it is hoped, will never grant. Abraham Lincoln may well be called the great American. Springing from the people, reared in poverty, struggling against hardship, attractive neither in form nor feature, with everything against him, he yet conquered every obstacle and rose from the obscurity of a backwoods "railsplitter" to be president of the United States, preserver and savior of the Union and the greatest, the best and the most honored of modern Americans.

CHAPTER XXIV.

A REUNITED NATION.

ABRAHAM LINCOLN died on the fifteenth of April, 1865. Amid the tremendous excitement that followed the intelligence of the dastardly deed and aroused all the vindictive passions of startled men and women, Andrew Johnson of Tennessee, elected as vice-president, took the oath of office and became president of the United States.

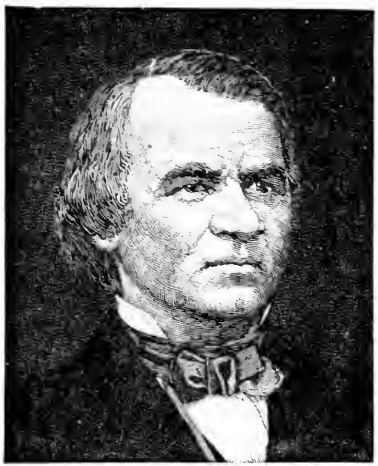
The war was over. The veteran soldiers of Generals Grant and Sherman marched in final review before the officers of the government they had saved. The tattered armies of the Confederacy, surrendering to foemen who worked in the spirit of the dead president's grandest words: "With malice toward none, with charity for all," returned to their homes, and two million Northern and Southern fighters became again law-abiding citizens, honest, hard-working, ambitious Americans.

HOME AGAIN.

The war was over; but now came the hardest part of the work — to reunite and put into running order the affairs of the whole nation. The seceding States had seen fit, solemnly and officially, to break away from their constitutional associations and "go out" of the Union. Now they must come back.

But how? It was a question to puzzle the clearest mind; it led to grave and conflicting actions in the White House and the Capitol.

President Johnson was an honest but obstinate man. He was a Unionist and a War Democrat. But he also believed in certain rights of the States and was unwilling that the seceded States should be "kept out" of the Union. He said: "They are all in the Union, rebel and Unionist alike." But Congress decreed otherwise.

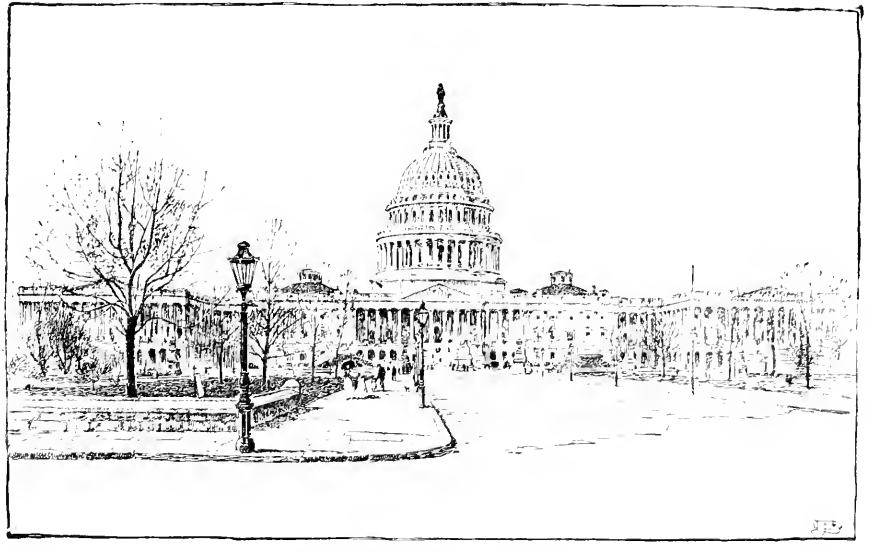


ANDREW JOHNSON.
Seventeenth president of the United States.

When the war began the North held that no State could break up the Union and that those that had withdrawn must be forced to come back without any change of conditions. But the war had destroyed slavery. The Thirteenth Amendment to the Constitution of the United States forever abolishing slavery had been accepted by three fourths of all the States, and was declared a part of the Constitution in December, 1865. Nearly four millions of negroes ("freedmen," as they were called) were emancipated by this Amendment. If the States came back again they must accept this change in the Constitution. It was clear that the Governments of the seceding States must, to a certain extent, be made over again — that is, "reconstructed."

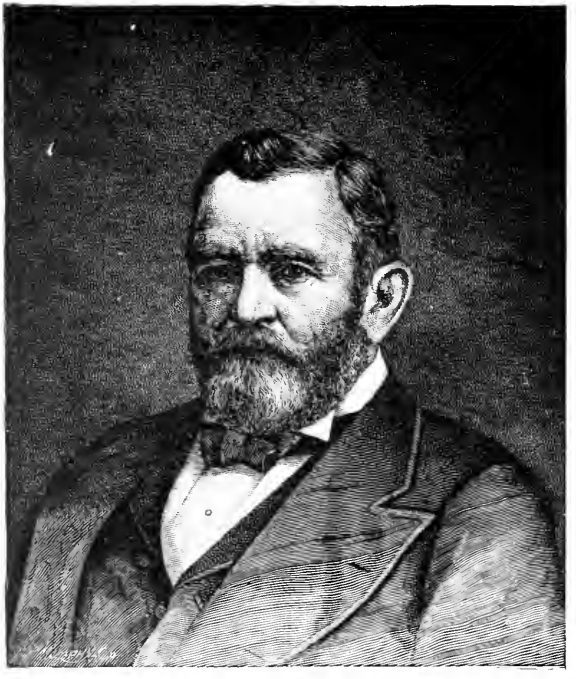
And so the six or seven years succeeding the war are known as years of reconstruction. Almost from the start there had been a disagreement as to methods between President Johnson and Congress. Of course the return of peace found things in a very confused condition in the South. The leading men of the Southern States had

been in rebellion against the National Government, and Congress did not propose to at once allow them a voice in the direction of affairs; the relations between the black people and the white were full of uncertainty and trouble and the unsettled state of certain sections of the southern country led to all sorts of disturbances and worries. President Johnson, it seemed to the Republican Congress,



THE CAPITOL OF THE UNITED STATES.

was too ready to take the side of the white people of the South, who had not yet shown themselves repentant for their part in the war; and Congress, so it seemed to President Johnson, was bent on keeping the former leaders of the South out of power and giving too much "protection" to the ignorant freedmen. There was



ULYSSES SIMPSON GRANT.

Eighteenth president of the United States.

justice on both sides, but this always makes a dispute all the more bitter and so there was a fierce quarrel between the President and Congress which led at last to the impeachment of President Johnson when, in 1867, he disobeyed one of the orders of Congress. This "impeachment" declared that the President was guilty of disobeying the laws. He was tried by the Senate, according to the direction

of the Constitution, but in order to remove him from office, it required that two thirds of the senators should vote that he was guilty. The vote stood: "Guilty" — thirty-five; "Not guilty" — nineteen. This was not a two thirds vote and the President was acquitted.

In the midst of this "reconstruction" trouble and when all the States, excepting Virginia, Mississippi and Texas, had (on their acceptance of the conditions imposed by Congress) been restored to their old place in the Union, President Johnson's term of office expired. It had been a stormy time, but even through all the differences of opinion, the people of the North and South were coming nearer together, though yet sore and stubborn over many things.

The result of the Presidential election of 1868 endorsed the position taken by the Republican Congress. The most popular man in the country was selected as candidate by the Republicans. His success was assured from the start, and General U. S. Grant, the invincible leader of the Union armies, was elected president by two hundred and fourteen out of the two hundred and ninety-four electoral votes.

OLD FRENCH MARKET, NEW ORLEANS.

Little by little affairs improved in the South. The Fourteenth Amendment to the Constitution which decreed "equal rights" to all men — white and black — and the Fifteenth Amendment, which decreed universal suffrage to all, were accepted, or ratified, by three fourths of the States; and though at first the results were full of danger in the South where unprincipled white men sought to use to their own interest the new voting power that had been given to the negroes, this evil in time righted itself, and year by year the scars of war were healed in the South; the spirit of progress entered in and

the "carpet bagger" and the "scalawag," the "Ku-Klux Klan" and the other violent elements in Southern society gave place to quiet, prosperous and loyal Americans. But the real and final end to all these troubles did not come for years.

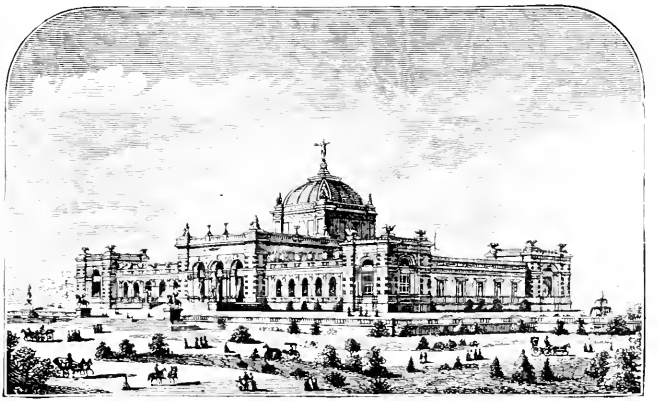
RUTHERFORD BIRCHARD HAYES.
Nineteenth president of the United States.

In 1872 the presidential election still turned upon Southern affairs; some even of the Republicans were dissatisfied with the course of their representatives in Congress and, joining with the Democrats, nominated for president an old-time anti-slavery Republican and the greatest of American newspaper editors, Horace Greeley of New York. But the bulk of the Republican party remained loyal to Congress; the Democrats, as a mass, could not bring themselves to support their old antagonist, Greeley; many of them abstained from voting and President Grant, who had been renominated by the Republicans, was triumphantly re-elected by two hundred and eighty-six of the three hundred and sixty-six electoral votes.

By this time the Southern States were fully restored to all the rights and privileges enjoyed by the entire Union; a free pardon

had been given to all who had taken part in the Civil War; and the principles of universal suffrage existed throughout the nation. But the quiet determination of the white people in the South to secure control of political affairs, resulted finally in the retirement of the negroes from their temporary power and for years the negro voters were "terrorized," as it was called, by the white leaders who gradually gained the power they desired and simply kept the black vote "under control."

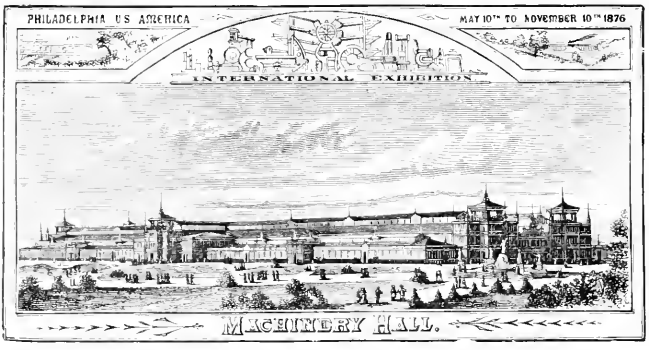
In 1876 nearly all the Southern States were Democratic again and the presidential election of that year was so close because of



THE ART GALLERY — CENTENNIAL EXHIBITION OF 1876.

the changed condition of political affairs that it very nearly resulted in serious trouble. The Republican candidate for President, Rutherford B. Hayes of Ohio, and the Democratic candidate, Samuel J. Tilden of New York, received an equal number of electoral votes, while both parties claimed to have carried the States of Florida and Louisiana. There was much excitement over this result; the

question was referred to Congress which was also antagonistic — the Senate being Republican and the House Democratic. It was finally referred to a special committee of fifteen, called the "Electoral Commission." After a careful examination into all



the disputed points, this Commission finally decided that the Republican candidate had been elected, and Rutherford B. Hayes was inaugurated as the nineteenth president of the United States.

It was now the year 1876. One hundred years had passed since the Declaration of Independence had been signed in the city of Philadelphia and the republic of the United States had grown from thirteen straggling and struggling colonies into a nation of thirty-eight great and prosperous States. The wounds and worries of the fearful war days were almost healed and forgotten; South and North were both advancing rapidly toward wealth and strength and, from a population of three millions in 1776, the Republic had grown to more than forty-two millions. Invention, education, intelligence, wealth and productive power had correspondingly increased and it seemed wise to the reunited country to show the whole world what these hundred years of national existence and growth had made of

the uncertain experiment of republican government which so many people had disbelieved in when the new nation started out in life.

So, in the year 1876, in the city of Philadelphia, where independence had been proclaimed, the states and territories of the United States of America held a great exhibition of its manufactures, inventions, materials and products and to this "Centennial Exhibition" all the rest of the world brought over the best they had, to add to the great display.

It was a fitting and peaceful celebration of one hundred years of progress. From ocean to ocean the land was free, united and prosperous and could proudly proclaim to all the world the successful working out, through years of struggle and worry, of obstacle and war, of persistent effort and unyielding will, of the problem of universal liberty for the first time in the history of the world.

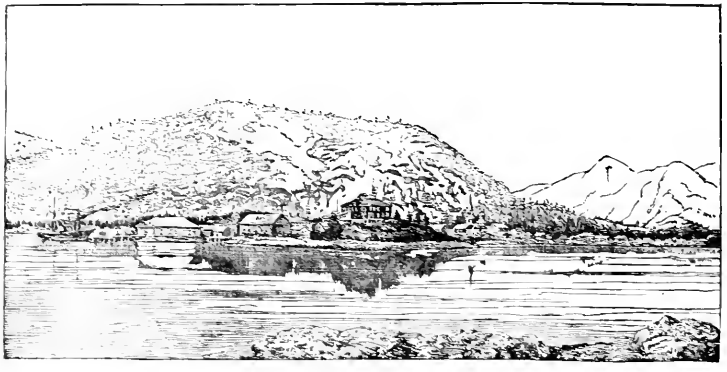
CHAPTER XXV.

AFTER AN HUNDRED YEARS.

WHEN President Hayes took the oath of office on the fourth of March, 1877, the United States entered upon a welcome season of calm. Peace had come at last; the sectional disputes and feuds brought about by slavery, that had filled the land with worry and anxiety for over seventy years, were stilled forever; no great political question was uppermost to disturb the minds of men and women and all the energies of America were devoted to the upbuilding of the reunited nation, the payment of the vast debt brought about by the war, and the development of all the mighty resources of the land.

This national debt at the close of the war, in 1865, was nearly three thousand millions of dollars. In less than a year over seventy millions of this great debt had been paid; each succeeding year has reduced it more and more, and the United States has proved the wisdom of that old proverb that is as true of nations as of men and boys: Out of debt is out of danger.*

Between the years 1861 and 1876 five new States were admitted to the Union. These were: Kansas in 1861, West Virginia (made of the loyal portion of the old State of Virginia) in 1863, Nevada in



SITKA, THE CAPITAL OF ALASKA.

1864, Nebraska in 1867 and Colorado in 1876. In 1867 the territory of Alaska, at the extreme northwestern corner of the North American continent, was purchased from Russia at a cost of over seven millions of dollars and the United States had grown in 1876 from its original area of 827,844 square miles to a territory embracing 3,603,884 square miles.

As more and more people went west, drawn by the hope of find-

* "In twenty years," says Mr. Johnston, "the United States has paid about twelve hundred millions of its debt, and only stops now because its creditors will not consent to be paid any further at present."

ing gold in California or by the hope of successful farming and cattle-raising in other sections, men saw the need of a quicker and safer mode of traveling overland than the slow-going emigrant trains, the rattling stage-coach or the galloping pony express. The dangers of travel across the plains from hostile Indians, highway robbers, lack of water, and, sometimes, starvation and death kept many from going into the new lands, but still the number grew year by year. It was evident that quicker methods were demanded, and in 1862, with the assistance of Congress, a company of railroad men began the building of the Central Pacific Railroad, to run from Omaha in Nebraska to San Francisco in California. Across the plains and over the Rocky Mountains the iron trail was stretched and in 1869 the great enterprise was completed and the continent was spanned. The Old World speedily learned the value of this new system of rapid transportation. Fast steamers across the Atlantic were connected by this railroad with fast steamers across the Pacific, and the life-work of Columbus to find "the new way to India" was at last realized in a manner never dreamed of by the great admiral.

"THE NEW WAY TO INDIA."

But even before the iron rails had been stretched across the continent, another marvelous connection had been formed when, in 1866, the telegraph wires of the Atlantic Cable were successfully laid at the bottom of the ocean, thus joining Europe and America by an electric bond.

The cable and the railways, the successful ending of the Civil War, the development of the rich farming and mining lands of the far west attracted the attention of the world to America, and each

year brought hosts of emigrants from over-crowded and over-worried Europe to find and found homes in the great republic. These, too, helped to people and improve the unoccupied lands of the west, and the growth of the nation in population and prosperity showed a large yearly increase.

The methods and habits of life in the America of 1876 were vastly different from those of 1776. If such remarkable inventions as the steam engine and the telegraph had revolutionized the ways of people, the advance made in intelligence and education had an equal effect upon the minds and manners of men. Two thirds of all the boys and girls of America were being taught in the public schools; academies and colleges were increasing in numbers and advantages; invention was astonishing the world with its marvels of construction; science was enlarging opportunity with its wonders of discovery; intellect was broadening knowledge with its fruits of thought, and more and more Americans were using their brains for the enlightening, the improving and the uplifting of their fellow-men.

AT THE COTTON LOOM.

The century of America's existence as a nation that had begun with Washington and Franklin, Jefferson and Adams, Hamilton and Madison, had developed such statesmen as Webster and Clay and Calhoun and Sumner; such soldiers as Jackson and Scott and Grant and Sherman and Lee; such sailors as Lawrence and Perry and Farragut and Porter; such inventors as Whitney and Fulton and Morse and Howe and McCormick, and Ericsson and Hoe; such explorers and path-

finders as Wilkes and Frémont and Kane; such writers and poets and thinkers as Emerson and Bancroft, Prescott and Motley, Longfellow and Lowell, Whittier and Holmes, Agassiz and Hawthorne and Harriet Beecher Stowe; such orators and teachers as Everett and Beecher and Horace Mann; such a philanthropist as Peter Cooper; such a leader as Abraham Lincoln.

RALPH WALDO EMERSON.

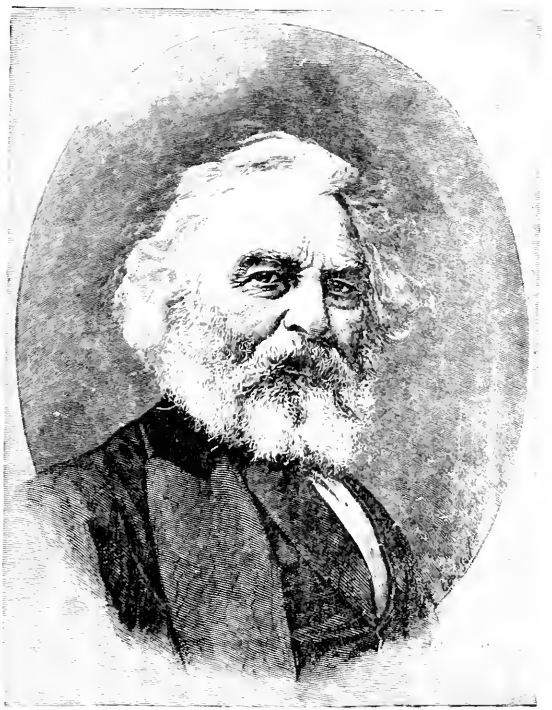
That first century had fought out to a victorious conclusion the great battle of human rights and national supremacy; it had established public schools and popular education; it had reformed the habits and the thought of men; it had extended the borders of the United States of America from a straggling line of coastwise colonies to a land that stretched from ocean to ocean and covered an area equal to the whole of Europe — and this comparison would leave out all of New England, New York, New Jersey, Pennsylvania and both the Virginias, for the United States, at the close of its first century, found itself nineteen times larger than France, twenty times larger than Spain and seventy-eight times larger than England.

The American Republic had successfully fought a terrible civil war in order to maintain its authority and preserve its union; but

during those years of war it had also held its position among the nations of the earth, some of whom hated and many of whom were jealous of it, because of its prosperity and its establishment of republican ideas. Even when that struggle was at its height, its old ally, France, sought to take advantage of its stress and of Mexico's weakness; it defied the American declaration of "The Monroe Doctrine" and aimed to establish a monarchy in Mexico, upheld by French bayonets and ruled over by an Austrian prince. Thereupon the Government of the United States spoke out boldly, demanding the withdrawal of the French soldiers from Mexican soil; troops were moved toward the Mexican border; the French Emperor, Napoleon the Third, taking the hint in time, withdrew his soldiers; the Austrian prince was shot as a usurper by Mexican patriots and the attempt at a foreign monarchy in Mexico closed in utter failure.

WILLIAM H. PRESCOTT.

The United States also demanded justice and payment from Great Britain because of England's assistance to Confederate privateers during the war. England long resisted the claim, but the great republic was equally determined and, as a result, instead of stupidly going to war over the question, as had been the custom in earlier days, it was decided to let certain calm-minded and clear-headed outsiders decide the rights in the case. So the "Alabama Claims," as they were called (because the chief of the rebel "commerce-

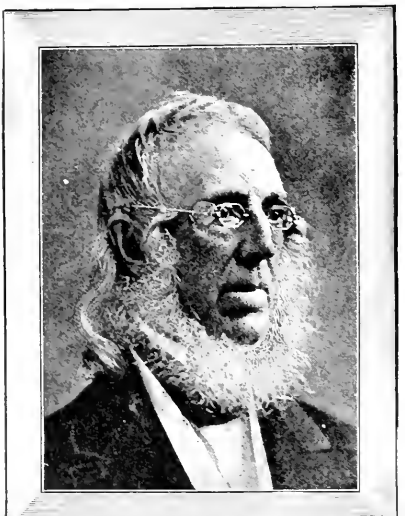


HENRY W. LONGFELLOW.

destroyers" was the privateer Alabama), were submitted for discussion to five men appointed by Great Britain, the United States, Italy, Switzerland and Brazil. These men met in 1872 at Geneva, in Switzerland; they talked the whole matter over, decided that Great Britain had done wrong and ordered that she should pay to

the United States as "damages" the sum of fifteen millions of dollars.

From this important event dates the employment of what is known as "arbitration" in settling disputes between nations. This is so much better and juster and nobler than war that it looks as if, in time, it will be adopted in the world's quarrels, and that sword and cannon will only be used as a sign of power or as the very last resort.



PETER COOPER.

Thus it was, that, with population growing steadily, with a prosperity that was almost continuous and with new wealth flowing into its treasuries and the pockets of its people, with gold and silver, coal and oil and natural gas being constantly discovered in new and rich sections, with manufactures growing and improving, and production in every branch of industry becoming each year larger and more far-reaching, the United States of America closed its first hundred years of life. The nation was at peace. The South, recovering from its years of war, with a load of poverty and debt that was almost crushing and with the new and conflicting social elements that must come from the downfall of slavery, still stood up manfully to its task; slowly it made good its losses and its setbacks; capital and energy both came to its aid; the former slave worked to better advantage as a free man, and the "New South,"

as it was called, blessed by free labor and the noble exertions of its people, began at last to take its part in the development of the nation and, together, North and South entered upon America's second century in peace, in prosperity, in union and in a mutual desire for self-helping and for national growth.

CHAPTER XXVI.

GROWING INTO GREATNESS.

THERE is a saying — probably familiar to you all — that "nothing succeeds like success." The advance made by the United States of America in material prosperity since the year 1876 is but a fresh proof of the truth of this well-known adage. Before 1880 began fifty millions of people lived in the land. Railroads and telegraphs zigzagged across it in every direction and the wonderful discoveries in electricity led the way toward the triumph of the telephone, the phonograph, the arc and incandescent lights that to-day, in 1891, make you all so far ahead of the boys and girls who hailed the close of the War of the Rebellion.

Truly, the last half of the nineteenth century has been a great time in which to live, even though the boys and girls of to-day — who are indeed the heirs of all the ages of thought and work that went before them — do not appreciate their advantages. Think of the things that make life comfortable to-day that your grandfathers and grandmothers knew but little or nothing of in their early youth. Gas instead of dip and candle; electric lights instead of flint and

steel, or the whale oil that fifty years ago everybody burned; parlor cars and palace steamboats in place of stage-coach and canal-boat; bridges instead of ferry-boats; the typewriter instead of the pen; sewing machines in place of needles; ploughing, planting, mowing and reaping machines in place of the slow-going affairs of our grandfathers' day; the bicycle, the camera, the electric car — these and hundreds of other wonderful improvements that the boys and girls of to-day accept as matters-of-course and look to see still further improved, are not only new to the world since the days "before the war," but are really the fruits of the success that has come to the great American republic since its centennial year of 1876.

Some of these advances were the outcome of the years of calm and quiet that marked the administration of President Hayes. In those days however were heard the mutterings of the unrest that always accompanies success, for where money is not equally distributed some are certain to get richer than others and those who have to work and struggle without great success are apt to grow envious and jealous of those who outstrip them in the race. So, in some sections of the land, certain of the working people — the men in factories or shops, or on railroads, docks and extensive works of producing or of building — began to say that they ought to be allowed to arrange their own wages and demanded more than their employers were willing to pay them. Failing to receive what they asked for they laid down their tools, compelled their fellow-workmen to throw aside theirs and, as it is called, "went out on a strike."

Sometimes these strikes were very disastrous to business interests and to personal rights. The railroad strikes of 1877 broke out into riot at Pittsburgh, in Pennsylvania, and led to the loss of nearly one hundred lives and the destruction of over three million dollars' worth of property.

There was also much discussion over money matters during the administration of President Hayes. The law that made gold the standard of values in money and said that a gold dollar was worth

more money than a silver one caused much dissatisfaction and uneasiness, especially among the farmers and the working people. But in 1878 a new law was made by Congress placing an equal value on silver and gold in purchasing and paying power.

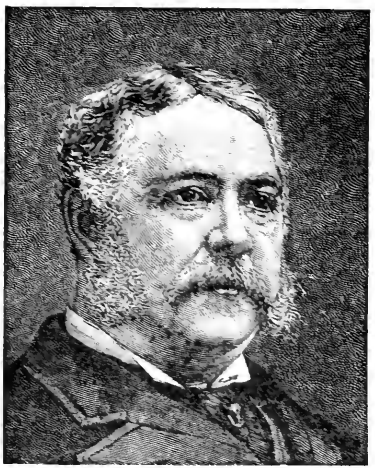
The tariff, the labor question and the silver money values were leading issues of the presidential campaign of 1880, but the Republican party was again successful and James A. Garfield of Ohio was elected president by a total of two hundred and fifteen electoral votes. Mr. Garfield was a man of strong character, impressive presence and great ability, but he was called upon at once to face the disgraceful struggle for place and position which the politicians and office seekers in his party made, after his election. In the midst of such a struggle at the opening of his second term of office President Lincoln had said: "Now we have conquered the rebellion, but here is something more dangerous to the republic than the rebellion itself."

JAMES A. GARFIELD
Twenty-first president of the United States.

His words were almost prophetic, for this struggle for the "spoils of office" that disgraced the country until the wiser ideas of what we call "the civil-service reform" grew into repute cost the nation the life of one of its most promising presidents. The strife for place and power between opposing factions and self-seeking men in the Republican party raged hotly about President Garfield and on the second of July, 1881 — within less than four months after his inauguration — he was foully

assassinated in the railway depot in Washington, struck down by the cowardly hand of a miserable and disappointed "office seeker."

In great suffering, heroically borne, for eighty days President Garfield lingered on, and died on the nineteenth of September at the cottage on the New Jersey seashore to which he had been removed. The Vice-President, Chester A. Arthur of New York, succeeded him as president and his administration was one of general prosperity with but few disasters and but few drawbacks. A reform in the "civil service" — that is, the appointment of the public officers of the government — was brought about by the sad death of Garfield and in 1883 Congress passed the Civil Service Act which provided for appointments to office on the ground of fitness rather than as payment for political service. This is a great step and will in time make the vast army of office holders called for by the needs of so large a government as ours the faithful servants of the public rather than the hangers-on of politicians.



CHESTER A. ARTHUR.

The twenty-first President of the United States.

During President Arthur's term of office the oft-discussed tariff question came again to the front. It was the leading issue in the presidential election of 1884 and the campaign was an exciting one. The election was close and turned finally on the vote of the State of New York which was cast for the Democratic candidate, Grover Cleveland of New York, who received two hundred and nineteen of the four hundred and one electoral votes.

President Cleveland's administration — the first one under the auspices of the Democratic party since that of Buchanan twenty-four years before — gave general satisfaction, but that shifting opinion of the people, that makes it always uncertain just who they wish the most, changed again before four years had passed and the election of 1888 proved a victory for the Republican party again and resulted in the election of Benjamin Harrison of Indiana as president by a total of two hundred and thirty-three electoral votes against one hundred and sixty-eight for President Cleveland, whom the Democrats had renominated. In this campaign the yet unsettled question of the tariff was the main issue and the two elements of opposition were known as Protectionists and Free-traders, according as they wished home manufactures protected or foreign goods brought into the country free of duty.

GROVER CLEVELAND.
Twenty-second president of the United States.

President Harrison's administration opened in the midst of a discussion, that is still far from a conclusion, as to the rights and wrongs of the laboring classes and the rights and limitations of the rich men of the land — the capitalists, monopolists, trusts and

syndicates. The working people combining into "trades unions" sought to force their demands and were confronted with resistance by the employers. The strikes and "boycotts" of the employees were met by the lockouts and "imported help" of the employers and both sides sought to take the control of affairs into their own hands. The American people, however, have never been patient under tyranny, and it is certain that neither the tyranny of "unions," nor the tyranny of riches can succeed in establishing itself permanently in free America.

BENJAMIN HARRISON
Twenty-third president of the United States.

During President Harrison's administration six new States were admitted to the Union — North Dakota, South Dakota, Montana and Washington in 1889, Idaho and Wyoming in 1890. To these new Commonwealths Utah was added by its admission to the Union in 1896, and since July 4 of that year the stars on the flag — one for each State — have been forty-five in number.

Following the great Jubilee Year of 1876, a series of centennial celebrations had, by recognizing important anniversary days, commemorated the successful closing of the first one hundred years in the

life of the republic. It was during the administration of President Harrison that these "centennials" came to a close with the noble and fitting celebration in the city of New York, of the one hundredth anniversary of the adoption of the Constitution of the United States and the inauguration of George Washington as the first president of the republic. For three days — April 30 to May 2, 1889 — the metropolis of America was gay with bunting, vocal with music, and alive with parades and pageants: while President and ex-presidents, governors and high officials, joined with great throngs of people, including an army of marching schoolboys, in honoring and commemorating the beginnings of the nation in its days of small things, when amid the storm and stress of revolution and of war, the fathers of the republic laid the foundations upon which their children reared a great and glorious structure.

THE WASHINGTON ARCH
Erected at the entrance to Fifth Avenue in New York City, to commemorate the one hundredth anniversary of Washington's inauguration as president of the United States.

These centennial glorifications made all Americans just a trifle conceited, and led many of them to desire what is termed territorial expansion — that is, more land for the republic; so when, in 1893, the republic of Hawaii, a group of Pacific islands formerly known as the Sandwich Islands, which had overthrown their native king and set up as a republic, came knocking for admittance at the doors of the United States, and asked to be joined to the American Union, many good Americans said, "Let her

come in." Indeed, the request was very nearly granted, but a change of administration brought other rulers into power and other methods into action; the time was not yet ripe for so great a departure from the old ways; the request of the islanders was not granted, and Hawaii remained an independent nation.

This change of administration was the result of the defeat of the Republican party at the national elections of 1892. This defeat was due to several causes, chief among which was the vexed question of the tariff, or how money should be raised and spent for the nation's good.

The Democratic party once again triumphed at the polls, and Grover Cleveland was elected for a second time president of the United States, by a total of two hundred and seventy-seven electoral votes.

CHAPTER XXVII.

HOW WE CLOSED THE NINETEENTH CENTURY.

MR. CLEVELAND'S second term opened with a great national jubilee. This was the celebration of the four hundredth anniversary of the discovery of America by Christopher Columbus.

The celebration took the form of a splendid display of what America and the rest of the world were doing in the way of manufacture, science, art, literature, education, religion, and all the pursuits, industries, and pleasures of man. It was called the World's Columbian Exposition, and was held in the city of Chicago during six months of the year 1893.

This exhibition of the world's work, and especially of America's progress, surpassed all previous displays of this kind. Upon the shores of Lake Michigan — that great fresh-water sea — there was built, within the limits of the bustling city of Chicago, a group of buildings, grand in design, marvellous in construction, and Aladdin-

IN THE WHITE CITY.

View of a portion of the grounds of the Columbian Celebration (World's Fair), Chicago, 1893.

like in beauty, all crowded with the masterpieces and triumphs of the world's work. To this great white city on the borders of Lake Michigan all the world came to see and wonder at the wealth, the power, the intelligence, and the magnificent resources of the mighty republic of the western world.

But pride often goes before a fall; and it was but the old story

repeated that the very year of the Columbian jubilee closed in depression and disaster, in what is known as the panic of 1893, when trade fell away, fortunes were lost, the people suffered, and in the midst of glory felt the clutch of need. It passed, however, as no financial panic could long dull the energies or stop the advance of so really prosperous a nation; but the changes and revisions that such a time of depression made necessary caused much annoyance, and led to many readjustments which were unpleasant to experience; while a great railroad strike in 1894 paralyzed trade, aroused the lower passions of men, and demanded a taste of military discipline before it was finally closed, at a cost to the people of more than seven millions of dollars.

These troubles set the people to thinking and talking, until finally they were again divided over the old and never-settled questions of the tariff and money, — whether the moneys raised by taxation should be simply for government expenses or for the protection of America's industries, and whether gold should be the standard of value or silver come in for an equal share.

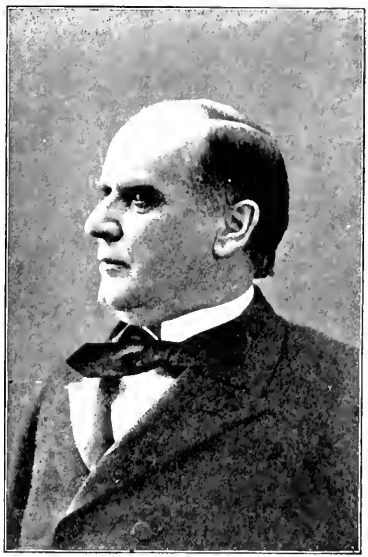
These questions were in high debate when the presidential election of 1896 came on. The two great parties were split and shaken by the opposing views, and what was called "the silver question" was made the great issue. There were gold Republicans and silver Republicans, gold Democrats and silver Democrats, while a new party sprang into existence, demanding that the government should own and run everything — railroads, telegraphs, and banks — just as it does the post-office. These men called themselves the People's Party, or the Populists. But the election was carried by the National Republicans, who, by a total of two hundred and seventy-one electoral votes, elected their candidate, William McKinley of Ohio, as the twenty-fifth president of the United States.

President McKinley at once set about a straightening of the tariff troubles, according to the plans and promises made by the Republican party which had elected him; but before the first year of his

ECLIPSE IN WEALTH AND INTELLIGENCE

administration had closed, the nation was confronted with a more imperative and absorbing issue than that of money values or taxes. This was the serious trouble with Spain.

For over four hundred years Spain had held an ever-weakening foothold on the American continent. The possessions given into her hand by Columbus, his companions and successors, had made her rich and powerful, but the very source of this power proved her own undoing; her greed for gold led her to misuse her colonies, until one by one they revolted from Spanish rule and became independent, even as the United States had broken away from England.



WILLIAM McKINLEY.
Twenty-fourth president of the United States.

At last, of all her American possessions, nothing remained to Spain but the fertile islands of Cuba and Porto Rico in the West Indies. The restlessness against Spanish rule extended in time to these, and the great island of Cuba was in frequent revolt, although Spain always spoke of it as "The Ever Faithful Isle." Sympathizers in the United States helped on this discontent, and for nearly a hundred years the story of Cuba was the story of tyranny and revolt, and a plea to the United States for help.

During the administration of President Grant, the troubles between Spain and her Cuban subjects very nearly drew the United States into the strife; and though the "misunderstanding" was smoothed

away by skilful management. President Grant's Secretary of State, Hamilton Fish, declared that unless Spain changed her course and treated the Cubans better, things would grow worse and worse, until the United States would at last be forced to interfere, both because of business interests and in the cause of humanity.

MAJOR-GENERAL NELSON A. MILES.
Commanding the armies of the United States.

But Spain did not change her ways. Instead, more and more she angered the Cuban patriots, who loved their beautiful island home. At last, in 1895, the trouble culminated in a determined revolt, which the governor and soldiers sent over the sea by Spain tried to stamp out by cruel and vicious means, in which persecution, tyranny, and murder played a dreadful part.

The Cubans appealed to the United States for aid; and the government, aroused to action by the sufferings and misery of the Cubans, protested, and begged Spain to change her ways, or the great western republic would be forced to heed the cry for help, and interfere in behalf of the people who were suffering at her doors.

When President McKinley came into office, the Cuban question was a pressing one. A strong spirit of sympathy for the Cubans was growing among the people of the United States, and men demanded that something be done to end this cruel condition of affairs. President McKinley was a man of peace. He had served as a soldier in the Civil War, and knew well all the terrors and horrors that war meant; while armed intervention,

which so many Americans desired, would, he well knew, lead to war. This he wished to obviate if he could, and although the pressure brought upon him by unwise politicians and irresponsible newspapers was very strong, he was determined, if possible, to bring about a better condition of affairs in Cuba by peaceful means — or what is called diplomacy.

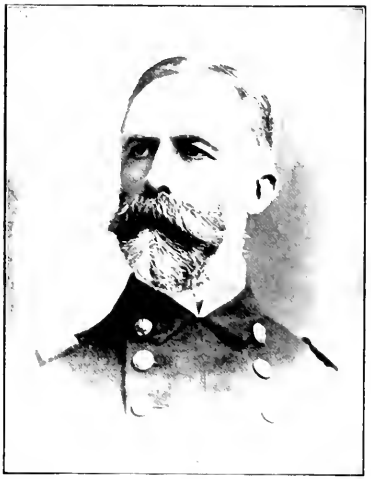
The wiser part of the American people were on his side, and sought to help the president to this peaceful solution of the difficulty in every possible way. But on the 15th of February, 1898, a terrible thing happened. The United States Steamship Maine, one of the largest and finest of the battleships of the new "white navy" of the United States, while peacefully at anchor in Havana harbor, where it had been sent at the request of the United States consul, Fitzhugh Lee, was treacherously destroyed by a submarine explosion, and nearly three hundred of her officers and crew killed.

This settled the matter. The voice of the people cried aloud for vengeance. But, even in the face of this popular demand for revenge, President McKinley stood firm for simple justice by peaceful means if possible; the thoughtful people of the nation rallied to his support; and, wrought up though they were by this cowardly crime, with a splendid patience they calmly awaited the report of a naval committee appointed to seek an explanation of the disaster.

But when the verdict came that the Maine was purposely destroyed, and when Spain made no satisfactory move to change matters in Cuba, or to make any reparation to the United States, the patience of the people seemed exhausted; the newspapers, which had stirred up the passions of a great nation, urged on the trouble; the people who were hot for war filled the land with their clamor, and Congress was roused to demand extreme measures, until at last the president felt that peace was impossible. Then only did he yield, and issued a proclamation stating that the existing condition of affairs in Cuba was unbearable, and must be changed, even if it led to war.

Spain took this as an act of hostility, sent the United States Min-

ister out of Spain, and thus herself created the war that now seemed inevitable. Then the United States acted promptly. The president called for volunteers, the whole naval force of the United States was sent into Spanish waters to blockade the ports of Cuba, and an army of 175,000 volunteers was summoned, recruited and put under arms for the invasion of Cuba. The United States and Spain were at last at war.



REAR-ADMIRAL WILLIAM T. SAMPSON.
Commanding the United States Navy on Cuban Waters.

It was an unnecessary and unwise war. Like others into which the United States had been forced, it might have been avoided, if gentler measures had been firmly insisted upon, and the people, hot-blooded over the crime against the Maine, and stirred to vengeance by the clamors of a heedless press and a vindictive Congress, had not overruled and forced the hand of the calm and peaceful president. But when once war was declared, the people hastened to uphold their president, and freely gave their money and their lives to carry out his measures. The unity of the republic was never better displayed than in the American people's rally to the call of their chief ruler in this time of strain and stress.

In less than one hundred days almost 225,000 men were mustered into the volunteer military service of the United States, while the regular army was increased to about 60,000. This gave to the republic 285,000 men of all arms; and at the end of the hundred days, every man was fully equipped for war. The quotas were speedily filled.

volunteers were gathered and disciplined in their appointed camps, while the navy, splendidly organized, and greatly increased in ships and seamen, held the doors of Cuba closely guarded, and took prize after prize from the unready enemy.

One of these fleets of the American navy gathered in Asiatic waters, and led by a brave and skilful sailor, Commodore George Dewey, made a sudden descent upon the city of Manila, the capital of the Philippine Islands. It was Spain's strongest possession in the Pacific; but on the 1st of May, Dewey and his ships attacked and completely destroyed the Spanish fleet of eleven warships gathered in the harbor of Manila.

REAR ADMIRAL GEORGE DEWEY.

Commanding the United States fleet in the battle of Manila, May 1, 1898.

This heroic and sweeping victory paralyzed Spain, and aroused the admiration of the world; while the European powers, withheld from giving aid or support to Spain by the friendly action of England, were forced to maintain a strict neutrality, and the United States and Spain were left to fight their quarrel to the end without the disturbance of outsiders.

The war was short, sharp, and decisive. The United States is slow to enter into the bloody business of battle; but, once embarked, it acts upon the advice that you will find Shakspere giving in the great play of "Hamlet": —

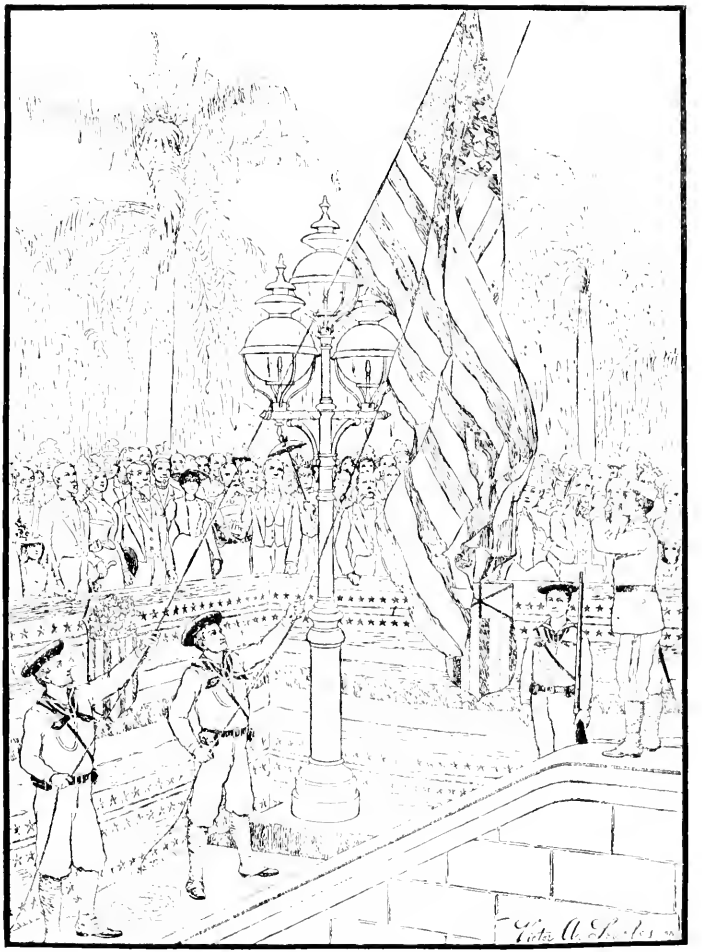
> "Beware
> Of entrance to a quarrel; but, being in,
> Bear it that the opposed may beware of thee."

War was declared by Spain April 24, 1898, and on the 25th, the American Congress called for the first quota of 175,000 troops. Within one hundred days the war was virtually over, and on the 12th of August, 1898, President McKinley issued a proclamation announcing a suspension of hostilities. On that day a protocol or preliminary treaty of peace was signed in Washington by Secretary of State Day and the French Ambassador Cambon, who represented Spain. The formal treaty was signed in Paris December 10. By its terms Spain gave up Cuba and ceded to the United States Porto Rico and the Philippine Islands. The United States also came into the possession of the island of Guam, one of the Ladrone group in the Pacific, which was necessary to the Americans as a naval and coaling station. Spain had spent in public improvement on the islands money to the amount of $20,000,000. This sum the United States agreed to pay Spain. The war had been one of the shortest on record.

COMMODORE WINFIELD SCOTT SCHLEY.

Commanding on the naval battle off Santiago, July 3, 1898.

But within that three months of actual warfare the United States had shown that its old habit of securing victory by the courage and dash of its fighting-men had not altered; for in that brief period the navy of the United States had destroyed two great Spanish fleets. It had driven the flag of Spain from the ocean, and proved at once the valor of American seamen, and the superiority of American warships. Dewey, Schley, Sampson, Wainwright, Hob-



OUR FLAG IN HAWAII

Raising the Stars and Stripes over the Palace in Honolulu, in token of American occupation and possession, August 12, 1898.

son, Philip, Evans, and a host of others, had given a new list of heroes to the annals of American naval warfare, and both the officers on the warships and "the men behind the guns" had displayed spirit, determination, courage, and courtesy that shed new lustre on the American navy, and gained fame and applause for the blue jackets of '98.

Less than fifty days of actual land fighting had also shown the ability and proven the strength of the American soldier. In every case in which the land forces faced the Spanish troops victory was at once assured, and the skirmishes — they could scarcely be called battles — at Guasimas and El Caney and the hill of San Juan, at Santiago, in Porto Rico, and before Manila, gave a new renown to the regulars and volunteers, who amid all the unfavorable surroundings of an unknown field, and in the heat of a tropic summer, pressed steadily on to victory, and once again made America proud of her sons on the field of battle.

The dawn of peace brought many serious problems for the people of the United States to consider. Of these the greatest was the wisdom and justice of retaining conquered territory, and departing from the traditions of the republic by annexing outside possessions. Among these last was Hawaii. These beautiful islands of the mid-Pacific, which for years had been seeking admission to the American household, became at last, by choice and necessity, part of the United States. On the 6th of July, 1898, the United States Senate voted to annex Hawaii, and on the 12th of August the flag of the Hawaiian republic was lowered, and the Stars and Stripes floated in possession above the new American territory of Hawaii.

Territorial expansion; the position of the United States among the great colonizers of the world; imperialism or isolation; the attitude of the republic toward those who by conquest or by choice become either a part or a dependency of the United States; arbitration or war; the position of the republic in the financial, commercial, and political affairs of the world, — these were among the great questions which the nineteenth century at its close gave the twentieth century

to solve. But if the war with Spain had served no other purpose, it was clearly worth all it cost in blood and treasure, because it united forever in a bond of closer brotherhood North and South, East and West, making one again all classes of the American people.

It was worth it, too, in the era of good feeling which it created between the historic foemen of the eighteenth century, England and America, and in its bringing into closer relations of friendliness, peace, and union all sections of the great English-speaking race.

NAVAL CONSTRUCTOR RICHMOND PEARSON HOBSON.

Thus the nineteenth century closed. At that time the republic of the United States of America counted a population within its own home borders of over seventy millions of people. Its wealth was almost boundless; its energy was tireless; its intelligence universal. A country the very existence of which four hundred years before was unknown to the civilized world, which three hundred years before had not a settler, which two hundred years before was but a scattered collection of feeble trading-posts and settlements, and which one hundred years before was at once the problem and the butt of the great nations of Europe, — had become the second nation of the world in wealth, the first in energy, intelligence, and inherent power. The United States needed no standing army; but millions of its citizens, as has been repeatedly displayed, stood ready to defend the integrity of their home-land in time of need, and maintain its honor against the menace of the world. It expended each year for education in its public schools one hundred and twenty-five millions of dollars, and educated therein ten millions of scholars; four hundred colleges instructed one hundred thousand young men

and women in the higher branches of study; and a thousand daily newspapers carried intelligence, instruction, and the spirit of progress into millions of homes.

In the one hundred and twenty-five years of independence nearly seventeen millions of foreign folks — emigrants from every nation across the eastern and western seas — had poured into the country. Bringing here all their old-world notions, faiths, and ways, they had been a source of fear to the timid, and a problem to the lawmakers of the nation, who felt that a danger to the republic might lie in this "invasion of America" by the hosts of the world's poor. The same problem of alien races in dependent lands faced the republic as a new century opened. But the true American had too much faith in the lasting value of the principles of freedom that had made his country great to fear their overthrow by those who, in time, would become as good Americans as was he himself. In the course of two hundred years, he felt, when all the conflicting elements of these days of emigration and annexation would have been lost in the mingling and mixing they must undergo, the United States would know neither German nor Irishman, Italian nor Chinaman, Spaniard nor Malay, Swede nor Hungarian, "Barbarian, Scythian, bond or free"; for there will be but one imperial citizen, — the American.

"OLD GLORY."

At the close of the century the United States of America, giving equal rights and unrestricted suffrage to all its citizens within its borders, with eighteen hundred millions of acres of land in town and city, field and farm and forest, was worth over sixty billions of dollars, and led the world in the production of cotton, wheat, cattle, pork, and minerals; in miles of railroads and telegraphs; in the ratio of intelligence, of church privileges, and Sunday-school instruction.

CHAPTER XXVIII.

A WORLD POWER.

T the close of the war with Spain, we may be said to have resembled that class of people who have their "greatness thrust upon them." Cuba, Porto Rico, and the Philippines were ours as lawful and inevitable spoils of war. But we found the possession of them embarrassing. Having them, the question was what we should do with them.

The course to be adopted by the United States in regard to Cuba was plain. We had acted for the Cubans merely as trustees, and by a resolution of Congress passed the 21st of April, 1898, had agreed to exercise sovereignty only for the "pacification" of the island and to leave its "government and control" to the people themselves. A military government was established in Cuba, and for about three years the island was under our control. During our short stay there we accomplished a work of regeneration, righting the wrongs of a long mismanagement. New schools were opened, streets were cleansed, and sewer systems constructed. When, by these educational and sanitary improvements, the island had been made fit and the Cuban government put in running order, the Stars and Stripes were hauled down, the Cuban tricolor was raised, and the Cuban republic was launched.

In Porto Rico the problem was solved for us by the people themselves. They had suffered much from the Spaniards and welcomed the Americans as their deliverers. The island passed peaceably under our control. Military rule soon gave place to civil government, and the inhabitants of the island formed a body politic known as "The People of Porto Rico." Under our government there have been fewer

deaths on the island, owing to improved conditions and higher standards of living. The Porto Ricans have proved loyal and capable in the performance of public offices.

Our great difficulty was with the Philippines. A portion of the inhabitants of these islands desired self-government. Before the Spanish-American War they had revolted against Spanish oppression and attempted to establish a republic. The soul of the revolutionary movement was a zealous and enterprising Filipino named Aguinaldo. He had been hired by Spain to depart from the Philippines. But on the American occupation of the islands he returned, resumed his leadership, and proclaimed an independent republic. This led to a bush warfare which lasted several years. Some Americans and many natives were killed. Systematic opposition to our arms ended in the capture of Aguinaldo and shortly afterwards all hostility ceased.

WILLIAM H. TAFT.

First civil governor of the Philippines, and afterwards secretary of war.

The opinion of the people of the United States was divided in regard to the policy to be pursued in the Philippines. Some thought that the islands should be left to govern themselves. The Filipino's rights to life and liberty, they said, were as unalienable as ours, and it was our duty to see these rights established in all honor. The popular view, however, was that the Filipinos were not yet ready for self-government. Most of the Americans held that it would be neither sensible nor kind to grant them independence at once. To do so would be to abandon the island to anarchy within and conquest from without.

We could only be their friends by seeming not to be. We must keep them for a while under our protection, regard them as our wards, establish for them a government suited to their needs, and teach them the art of self-government. This view was the one entertained by President McKinley and President Roosevelt, and it dictated the whole of our policy in the Philippines.

The American occupancy of the islands was not without its blunders. We were at first often lacking in tact and sympathy. But certain it is that the results have proved good. In July, 1901, civil government was established in the Philippines and William A. Taft was inaugurated civil governor. Natives were made public officials, and peace and prosperity came to the islands.

THEODORE ROOSEVELT.
Twenty-fifth president of the United States.

Of course we had not yet arrived at these results, and the disposal and management of our island possessions were as yet an unsolved problem, when the presidential campaign of 1900 was fought. In this contest our occupation of the Philippines was made as grave an issue as the gold and silver question which again, as four years before, agitated and divided the people. The outcome proved that the main body of the people sanctioned the administration in its Philippine policy and acknowledged that gold might be trusted to do the service for which silver had been deemed necessary. The Republican victory was the most sweeping since 1872, and McKinley was re-elected president, with Theodore Roosevelt of New York as vice-president.

The year following McKinley's re-election saw the celebration of a Pan American Exposition at Buffalo. This was inaugurated with the design of proving to Cuban, Porto Rican, and Filipino our common interests and friendly sentiments, and of promoting mutual knowledge and good will through all parts of the nation. It was at this Exposition that President McKinley delivered an address which was destined to be his last. While holding a public reception within the Fair grounds, September 6, 1901, he was shot by an anarchist and fatally wounded. His first thoughts were for others. He requested that the news be broken gently to Mrs. McKinley, expressed fear that the occurrence might injure the Exposition, and begged that no hurt be allowed to befall the assassin at the hands of the maddened crowd. A week after the date of the injury he died. He left a record of rare statesmanship and noble character.

On the day of McKinley's death, Vice-President Roosevelt was sworn into office. His administration continued the policy of his predecessor. The difference between the two presidents was one of method rather than of principle. McKinley, it was remarked, "held the tiller" and Roosevelt "strenuously plied the oar." Senator Depew has described McKinley as a western man with eastern ideas, and Roosevelt as an eastern man with western ideas.

Upon his accession Roosevelt aimed to work some reform in the industrial world. People were talking more and more heatedly of the trusts as a menace to civic democracy. In 1903 a new department of Commerce and Labor was created. The new branch embraced a Bureau of Corporations to which was given the power of collecting and publishing the workings of great corporations. While capital continued thus to combine, labor on its part continued to unionize. In 1902 an anthracite coal strike occurred in Pennsylvania. The miners there struck for higher wages and a recognition of the United Mine Workers of America. The strike lasted several months, and the country was threatened with a coal famine. It was finally agreed by both miners and operators to leave the settlement of their dispute to a

commission appointed by the president. This commission was created and declined to require recognition of the Union, but decreed an advance in wages.

It was during Roosevelt's administration that the gigantic enterprise of the Panama Canal was undertaken. The need of a canal to connect the Atlantic and Pacific oceans had long been felt. The Americans contemplated building one across the Central American state Nicaragua. Two treaties to this effect had been made with Great Britain, the second known as the Hay-Pauncefote treaty (December, 1901), by which the neutrality of the canal was guaranteed. Work was about to be begun on this canal, when the French owners of a franchise for a canal across the Isthmus of Panama, in the Republic of Colombia, offered to sell their interests to the United States. Our government accepted the offer on condition that it could secure from Colombia the franchise for right of way. A treaty was drawn up between the United States and the Colombian republic, which our Senate ratified, but which the Colombian Senate rejected. The people of Panama, however, favored the treaty. They rebelled against the Colombian government and proclaimed an independent republic. In 1904 a treaty was concluded between Panama and the United States. Panama received $10,000,000 and the French owners of the franchise $40,000,000. The United States was guaranteed sovereignty across the Isthmus over a strip of land ten miles wide. The work is now in progress and is estimated as the greatest engineering project in history. When done, it will be an achievement of the utmost worth to the commercial world.

Roosevelt's straightforward policy gave satisfaction to the people. They recognized in him a fit representative of their dominant temperament. In the presidential campaign of 1904, therefore, the call for his renomination came from the people and was a hearty one. He became president for his elected term by a large majority, with Charles W. Fairbanks of Indiana, one of the strongest leaders in the Senate, as vice-president.

Roosevelt was now by choice of the people at the head of a nation which was universally regarded as a world power. By the acquisition of our possessions in the Pacific at the close of the Spanish-American War we had become a force in the Pacific. Consequently the affairs of China, Japan, and Russia affected our interests and were of importance to us. Our position geographically was a commanding one; we were in the direct line of European and Asiatic immigration and commerce. The new Pacific cable from San Francisco to Manila was completed and in July, 1903, President Roosevelt sent the first message round the world. It was inevitable that our part in world politics should be a prominent one. Just after the war with Spain, an International Peace Conference met at The Hague on the invitation of the Czar of Russia. The United States was one of the participants. The most notable achievement of the conference was the permanent International Court of Arbitration, which was established for the peaceful adjustment of international disputes.

It was certainly an irony of fate that the Czar, who had been the one most influential in the Peace Conference, should have become almost immediately involved in war. During the Boxer difficulties in China, Russian troops had been stationed in the province of Manchuria for the protection of the railway which Russia had built from St. Petersburg to Port Arthur. When the rebellion was at an end, the Russian government, thinking to appropriate the Chinese province and to monopolize its trade, refused to withdraw the troops. Thereupon the Japanese, seeing in this Russian occupation danger to their commerce and to their empire, protested. The war which resulted and which was proclaimed February, 1904, was one of great bloodshed and destruction.

As the war continued, it began to look as if other nations might be drawn in. There was need of a wise and fair-minded intelligence, some one to act as peacemaker. It was our American president, leading all other nations in promptness and positiveness, who undertook this humane and difficult part. Induced by his persuasions,

Russia and Japan met in a conference at Portsmouth, New Hampshire, and terms of peace were agreed upon (September, 1905). The treaty was the first one signed between two foreign powers on the American continent.

The date of the Portsmouth Peace Conference is an important one in international history. The peace which it secured was to the interest not only of Russia and Japan, but of all civilized mankind. It marked an advance, brought the world one step nearer to the ideal peace and brotherhood.

The United States which has thus honorably entered into the politics of the world is a big and growing power. It has all the opportunities, all the possibilities, all the probabilities of becoming within the next fifty years the greatest nation on the earth. Whether it shall also be the best, the brightest, the noblest, and the grandest, depends upon the boys and girls who to-day are receiving instruction in its schools: for by studying their country's past, they are learning lessons of patriotism; by guiding their action by the successes and failures of the explorer and colonist, the patriot and the citizen, of the days gone by, they will, with truth and honor, energy and good faith to help them on, make forever glorious and forever free the mighty land which four hundred years ago was brought to the knowledge of a ready and waiting world by the faith, the perseverance, and the courage of Christopher Columbus the Genoese.

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